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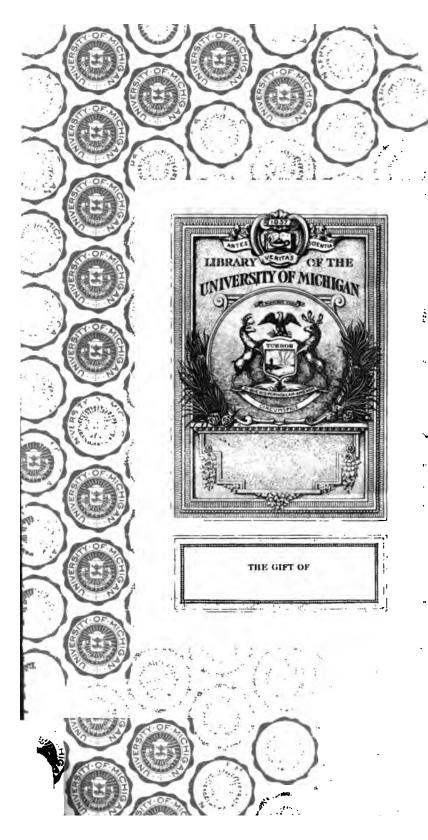
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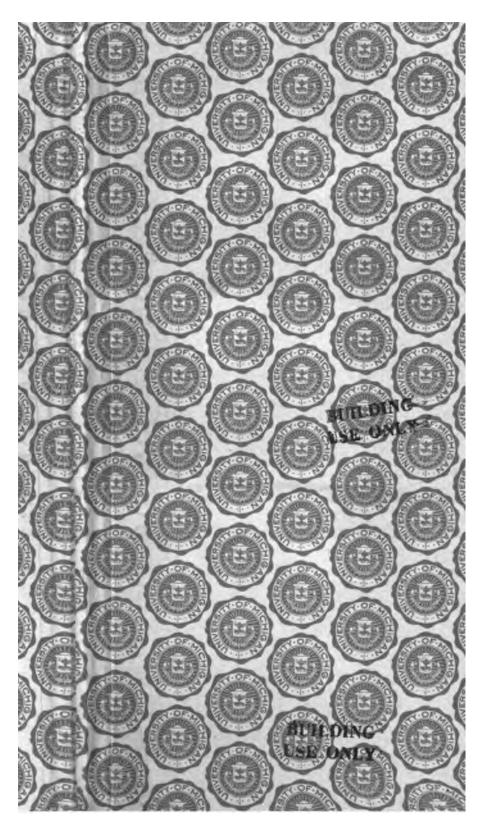
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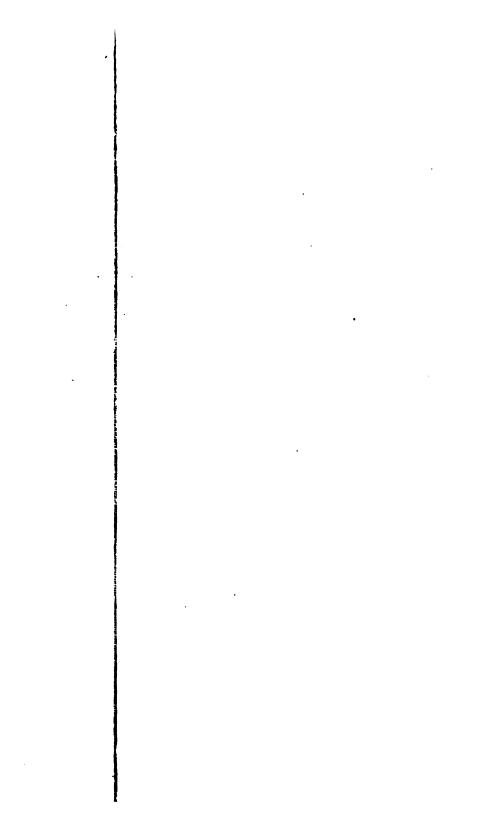






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HERMES

OR /2353

A PHILOSOPHICAL INQUIR

CONCERNING

VNIVERSAL GRAMMAR

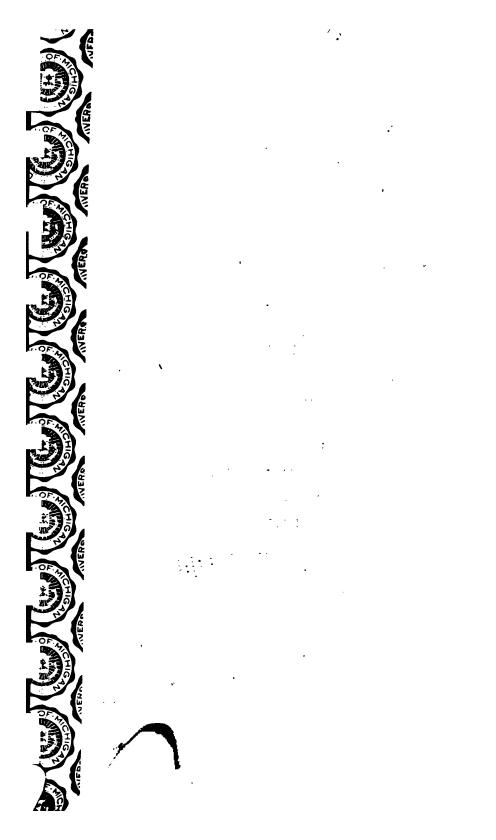
BY IAMES HARRIS ESQ.

EIZIENAI GAPPOTNTAZ EINAI FAP KAI ENTATGA GEOTZ.

THE FOURTH EDITION REVISED AND CORRECTED

Printed for C. NOURSE, in the Strand.

MDCCLXXXVI.



or c. w. jones

To the Right Honourable

PHILIP Lord HARDWICKI

Lord High Chancellor of Great
Britain*.

My Lord,

As no one has exercise the Powers of Speec with juster and more universapplause, than yourself; have presumed to inscribe the following Treatise to you Lordship, its End being to investigate the Principles of those Powers. It has a faither claim to your Lordship's Patronage, by bein connected in some degree with that politer Literature, which in the most important scene

* The above Dedication is printed as it originally flow the Author being defirous that what he intended as real R spect to the noble Lord, when living, should now be co

fidered, as a Testimony of Gratitude to his Memory.

of Business, you have still found time to cultivate. With regard to myself, if what I have written be the fruits of that Security and Leifure, obtained by living under a mild and free Government; to whom for this am I more indebted, than to your Lordship, whether I consider you as a Legislator, or as a Magistrate, the first both in dignity and reputation? Permit me therefore thus publicly to assure your Lordship, that with the greatest gratitude and respect I am, My Lord,

Your Lordship's most obliged, and most obedient humble Servant, Close of Salisbury, Oct. 1, 1751.

James Harris.

PREFACE.

HE chief End, proposed by the Author of this Treatise in making it public, has been to excite his Readers to curiofity and inquiry; not to teach them himself by prolix and formal Lectures, (from the efficacy of which he has little expectation) but to induce them, if possible, to become Teachers to themselves, by an impartial use of their own understandings. He thinks nothing more absurd than the common notion of Instruction, as if Science were to be poured into the Mind, like water into a cistern, that passively waits to receive all that comes. The growth of Knowledge be rather thinks to resemble the growth of Fruit; bowever external causes may in some degree co-operate, it is the internal vigour, and virtue of

vi

the tree, that must ripen the juices to their just maturity.

This then, namely, the exciting men to inquire for themselves into subjects worthy of their contemplation, this the Author declares to have been his first and principal motive for appearing in print. Next to that, as he has always been a lover of Letters, be would willingly approve his studies to the liberal and inge-He has particularly named these, in distinction to others; because, as his studies were never prosecuted with the least regard to lucre, so they are no way calculated for any lucrative End. The liberal therefore and ingenuous (whom he has mentioned already) are those, to whose perusal he offers what he has written. Should they judge favourably of his attempt, be may not perhaps besitate to confess,

Hoc juvat et melli est.

For

PREFACE.

s to

ing ion, reen for hat, of rove ıgemed use, uted they craand oned ·uʃal ould mpt, ifess,

For

For tho' he hopes he cannot be charge with the foolish love of vain Prabe has no desire to be thought inaferent, or insensible to benest Fame

From the influence of these sen ments, he has endeavoured to treat Subject with as much order, corre ness, and perspicuity as in his powe and if he has failed, he can say say (according to the vulgar phra that the failure has been his misf tune, and not his fault. He score those trite and contemptible meth of anticipating pardon for a bad p formance, that " it was the ba "fruits of a few idle bours; write "merely for private amusemen "never revised; published agai "consent, at the importunity "friends, copies (God knows ho "having by stealth gotten abroad with other stale jargon of equal fa bood and inanity. May we not fuch Prefacers, If what they alle A 4

be true, what has the world to do with them and their crudities?

As to the Book itself, it can say this in its behalf, that it does not merely confine itself to what its title promises, but expatiates freely into whatever is collateral; aiming on every occasion to rise in its inquiries, and to pass, as far as possible, from small matters to the greatest. Nor is it formed merely upon sentiments that are now in fashion, or supported only by such authorities as are modern. Many Authors are quoted, that now-a-days are but little studied; and some perhaps, whose very names are bardly known.

The Fate indeed of antient Authors (as we have happened to mention them) is not unworthy of our notice. A few of them survive in the Libraries of the learned, where some venerable Folio, that still goes by their name, just

just suffices to give them a kind of nominal existence. The rest have long fallen into a deeper obscurity, their very names, when mentioned, affecting us as little, as the names, when we read them, of those subordinate Heroes,

Alcandrumque, Haliumque, Noemonaque, Prytanimque.

Now if an Author, not content with the more eminent of antient Writers, should venture to bring his reader into such company as these last, among people (in the fashionable phrase) that nobody knows; what usage, what quarter can be have reason to expect? Should the Author of these speculations have done this (and it is to be feared be has) what method had he best take in a circumstance so critical?—Let us suppose him to apologize in the best manner he can, and in consequence of this, to suggest as follows—

He '

He hopes there will be found a pleasure in the contemplation of antient sentiments, as the view of antient Architecture, tho' in ruins, has something venerable. Add to this, what from its antiquity is but little known, has from that very circumstance the recommendation of novelty; so that bere, as in other instances, Extremes may be faid to meet. Farther still, as the Authors, whom he has quoted, lived in various ages, and in distant countries; some in the full maturity of Grecian and Roman Literature; some in its declension; and others in periods still more barbarous, and depraved; it may afford perhaps no unpleasing speculation, to fee bow the same Reason has at all times prevailed; how there is ONE TRUTH, like one Sun, that has enlightened human Intelligence through every age, and saved it from the - darkness both of Sophistry and Error.

Nothing

Nothing can more tend to enlarge the Mind, than these extensive views of Men, and human Knowlege; nothing can more effectually take us off from the foolish admiration of what is immediately before our eyes, and help us to a juster estimate both of present Men, and present Literature.

It is perhaps too much the case with the multitude in every nation, that as they know little beyond themselves, and their own affairs, so out of this narrow sphere of knowlege, they think nothing worth knowing. As we Britons by our fituation live divided from the whole world, this perhaps will be found to be more remarkably our case. And hence the reason, that our studies are usually satisfied in the works of our own Countrymen; that in Philosophy, in Poetry, in every kind of subject, whether serious or ludicrous, whether sacred or profane, we think perperfection with ourselves, and that it is superfluous to search farther.

The Author of this Treatife would by no means detract from the just bonours due to those of his Countrymen, who either in the present, or preceding age, have so illustriously But tho' he can with adorned it. pleasure and sincerity join in celebrating their deserts, he would not have the admiration of these, or of any other few, to pass thro' blind excess into a contempt of all others. fuch Admiration to become universal, an odd event would follow; a few learned Men, without any fault of their own, would contribute in a manner to the extinction of Letters.

A like evil to that of admiring only the authors of our own age, is that of admiring only the authors of one particular Science. There is indeed in this last prejudice something pecu-

peculiarly unfortunate, and that is, the more excellent the Science, the more likely it will be found to produce this effect.

There are few Sciences more intrinsically valuable, than MATHE-MATICS. It is hard indeed to fay, to which they have more contributed, whether to the Utilities of Life, or to the sublimest parts of Science. They are the noblest Praxis of Logic, or UNIVERSAL REASONING. It is thro' them we may perceive, how the stated Forms of Syllogism are exemplified in one Subject, namely the Predicament of Quantity. By marking the force of these Forms, as they are applied here, we may be enabled to apply them of ourselves elsewhere. farther still—by viewing the MIND, during its process in these syllogistic employments, we may come to know in part, what kind of Being it is; fince MIND, like other Powers, can be

ţ

be only known from its Operations. Whoever therefore will study Mathematics in this view, will become not only by Mathematics a more expert Logician, and by Logic a more rational Mathematician, but a wiser Philosopher, and an acuter Reasoner, in all the possible subjects either of science or deliberation.

But when Mathematics, instead of being applied to this excellent purpose, are used not to exemplify Logic, but to supply its place; no wonder if Logic pass into contempt, and if Mathematics, instead of furthering science, become in fact an obstacle. For when men, knowing nothing of that Reasoning which is universal, come to attach themselves for years to a fingle Species, a species wholly involved in Lines and Numbers only; they grow infenfibly to believe these last as inseparable from all Reaforing, as the poor Indians thought every

PREFACE.

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every borseman to be inseparable from bis borse.

And thus we see the use, nay the necessity of enlarging our literary views, lest even Knowlege itself should obstruct its own growth, and perform in some measure the part of ignorance and barbarity.

ed of pose, but er if d if ring acle. g of rfal, rears bolly nbers :liev**e** Reaught every.

Such then is the Apology made by the Author of this Treatise, for the multiplicity of antient quotations, with which he has filled his Book. If be can excite in his readers a propen spirit of curiosity; if he can help in the least degree to enlarge the bounds of Science; to revive the decaying taste of antient Literature; to lessen the bigotted contempt of every thing not modern; and to affert to Authors of every age their just portion of esteem; if he can in the least degree contribute to these ends, he hopes it may be allowed, that he has done a [ervice

fervice to mankind. Should this fervice be a reason for his Work to survive, he has confest already, it would be no unpleasing event. Should the contrary happen, he must acquiesce in its fate, and let it peaceably pass to those destined regions, whither the productions of modern Wit are every day passing,

----in vicum vendentem tus et odores.

ADVERTISEMENT.

The Reader is defired to take notice, that as often as the author quotes V. I. p. &c. be refers to Three Treatifes published first in one Volume, Octavo, in the year 1745.

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R A T. A. E R

Page 80, line 17, for unoralizor, read unoraxlizor.
131, Note, l. 1, for Roman, read Romani.

^{252,} l. 2 from the bottom, for An, read And.

^{328,} l. 3 from the bottom, for ogyavar, read ogyavor.
332, l. last, for i, read it.
369, Note, l. 15, for uncleasing, read unceasing.

^{384,} Note, l. 4, for olds we, read oldswe.

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HERMES

OR A PHILOSOPHICAL INQUIRY CONCERNING UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

воок і.

CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.

Design of the Whole.

for Solitude, they had never felt an Impulse to converse one with another: And if, like lower Animals, they had been by nature irrational, they could not have recognized the proper Subjects of Discourse. Since Speech then is the joint Energie of our best and noblest Faculties (a), (that is to say, of our Rea-

Son

(a) See V. I. p. 147 to 169. See also Note xv. p. 292, and Note xix. p. 296, of the same Volume.

HERMES.

Ch. I. fon and our focial Affection) being withal our peculiar Ornament and Distinction, as Men; those Inquiries may surely be deemed interesting as well as liberal, which either fearch how Speech may be naturally refolved; or how, when resolved, it may be again combined.

HERE a large field for speculating opens before us. We may either behold Speech, as divided into its constituent Parts, as a Statue may be divided into its several Limbs; or else, as resolved into its Matter and Form, as the same Statue may be resolved into its Marble and Figure.

THESE different Analysings or Resolutions constitute what we call (b) PHILO-SOPHICAL, OF UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

WHEN

⁽b) Grammaticam etiam bipartitam ponemus, ut alia fit literaria, alia philosophica, &c. Bucon, de Augm. Scient. VI. 1. And soon after he adds—Verumtamen bâc iffi re moniti, cogitatione complexi sumus Grammaticam quandam, quæ non analogiam verborum ad invicem, sed analogiam inter verba et res seu rationem sedulò inquirat.

WHEN we have viewed SPEECH thus analysed, we may then consider it, as compounded. And here in the first place we may contemplate that (c) Synthesis, which by combining simple Terms produces a Truth; then by combining two Truths produces a third; and thus others, and others, in continued Demonstration, till we are led, as by a road, into the regions of Science.

Now this is that *fuperior* and most excellent *Synthesis*, which alone applies itself to our *Intellect* or *Reason*, and which to

B 2 conduct

⁽c) Aristotle says—των δε καλα μπδεμίαν συμπλοκην λεγομένων εδεν έτε αληθες έτε ψευδίς ές ιν
είον άνθρωπ , λεῦκ , τρέχει, νικα — Of those words
which are spoken without Connection, there is no one
either true or false; as for instance, Man, white,
runneth, conquereth. Cat. C. 4. So again in the beginning of his Treatise De Interpretatione, περί γαρ
σύνθεσιν κ διάιρεσιν ές ι τὸ ψευδός τε κ τὸ τὸ αληθές.
True and False are seen in Composition and Division.
Composition makes affirmative Truth, Division makes
negative, yet both alike bring Terms together, and so
say therefore may be called synthetical.

Ch.I. conduct according to Rule, constitutes the Art of Logic.

AFTER this we may turn to those (d) inferior Compositions, which are productive

(d) Ammonius in his Comment on the Treatife Hegi Epunveiae, p. 53, gives the following Extract from Theophraftus, which is here inserted at length, as well for the Excellence of the Matter, as because it is not (I believe) elsewhere extant.

. Διτίης γαρ έσης τε λόγε σχέσεως, (καθ' α διώρισεν ό φιλόσοφο Θεόφεαςου) της τε ΠΡΟΣ ΤΟΥΣ ΑΚΡΟΩΜΕΝΟΥΣ, οίς κή σημαίνει τι, א דחק ΠΡΟΣ ΤΑ ΠΡΑΓΜΑΤΑ, ὑπὲρ ὧν ὁ λέγων ως:σαι ωροτίθηται τές ακροωμένες, ωερί μέν έν την σχέσιν αυίε την ΠΡΟΣ ΤΟΥΣ ΑΚΡΟΑΤΑΣ καζα: φίνον αι σοιπίκη κρ ρηθορική, διότι έργον αυθαίς έκλέγεσθαι τὰ σεμνότερα τῶν ὀνομάτων, ἀλλὰ μὴ τὰ κοικὰ κ) δεδημευμένα, κ) ταυτα έναρμονίως συμπλέκειν άλλήλοις, ώςε δια τέτων κό των τέτοις έπομένων, οίον σαφηνείας, γλυκύτητ 🕒, κ) των άλλων ίδεων, έτι τε μακρολογίας, κ βραχυλογίας, καθα καιρον σάντων σαραλαμβανομένων, οίσαί τε τον ακροατήν, κ) έκπληξαι. κό ωρός την ωείθω χειρωθέν α έχειν· της δέ γε ΠΡΟΣ ΤΑ ΠΡΑΓΜΑΤΑ τε λόγε σχέσεως δ φιλόσοφω προηγεμένως ἐπιμελήσείαι, τό, τε ψευδω διελέγχων,

ductive of the Pathetic, and the Plea- Ch.I. fant in all their kinds. These latter Compositions

2) το αληθές αποδειχνύς. The Relation of Speech being twofold (as the Philosopher Theophrastus hath fettled it) one to the HEARERS, to whom it explains something, and one to the THINGS, concerning which the Speaker proposes to persuade his Hearers: With respect to the first Relation, that which regards the HEARERS, are employed Poetry and Rhetoric. Thus it becomes the business of these two, to select the most respectable Words, and not those that are common and of vulgar use, and to connect such Words harmoniously one with another, fo as thro' thefe things and their consequences, such as Perspicuity, Delicacy, and the ether Forms of Eloquence, together with Copiousness and Brevity, all employed in their proper season, to lead the Hearer, and strike him, and hold him vanquished by the power of Persuasion. On the contrary, as to the Relation of Speech to THINGS, here the Philosopher will be found to have a principal employ, as well in refuting the Falle, as in demonstrating the True.

Sanctius speaks elegantly on the same Subject. Greavit Deus hominem rationis participem; cui, quia Sociabilem effe voluit, magno pro munere dedit Seimonem. Sermoni autem perficiendo tres opifices adhibuit. Prima est Grammatica, que ab oratione solacismos & barbarismos expellit; secunda Dialectica, quæ in Sermonis veritate versatur; tertia Rhetorica, quæ ornatum Sermonis tantum exquirit. Min. 1. 1.

б

Ch.I. positions aspire not to the Intellect, but being addressed to the Imagination, the Affections, and the Sense, become from their different heightnings either RHE-TORIC OF POETRY.

Nor need we necessarily view these Arts distinctly and apart; we may observe, if we please, how perfectly they co-incide. Grammar is equally requisite to every one of the rest. And though Logic may indeed subsist without Rhetoric or Poetry, yet so necessary to these last is a sound and correct Logic, that without it, they are no better than warbling Trisles.

Now all these Inquiries (as we have said already) and such others arising from them as are of still sublimer Contemplation, (of which in the Sequel there may be possibly not a sew) may with justice be deemed Inquiries both interesting and liberal.

At present we shall postpone the whole synthetical Part, (that is to say, Logic and Rbetoric) and confine ourselves to the analytical, that is to say, Universal Grammar. In this we shall follow the Order, that we have above laid down, first dividing Speech, as a Whole, into its constituent Parts; then resolving it, as a Composite, into its Matter and Form; two Methods of Analysis very different in their kind, and which lead to a variety of very different Speculations.

SHOULD any one object, that in the course of our Inquiry we sometimes descend to things, which appear trivial and low; let him look upon the effects, to which those things contribute, then from the Dignity of the Consequences, let him honour the Principles.

THE following Story may not improperly be here inferted: "When the Fame B 4 " of Ch. I.

of Heraclitus was celebrated through

out Greece, there were certain persons,

" that had a curiofity to see so great a

"Man. They came, and, as it happen-

" ed, found him warming himself in a

"Kitchen. The meanness of the place

" occasioned them to stop; upon which the Philosopher thus accosted them—

ENTER (fays he) BOLDLY, FOR HERE

" TOO THERE ARE GODS (e)."

WE shall only add, that as there is no part of Nature too mean for the Divine Presence; so there is no kind of Subject, having its soundation in Nature, that is below the Dignity of a philosophical Inquiry.

⁽e) Sec Aristot. de Part. Animal. 1. 1. c. 5.

CHAP. II.

Concerning the Analyfing of Speech into its

fmallest Parts.

ture, are not first to Man. Nature begins from Causes, and thence descends to Effects. Human Perceptions sirst open upon Effects, and thence by slow degrees ascend to Causes. Often had Mankind seen the Sun in Eclipse, before they knew its Cause to be the Moon's Interposition; much oftner had they seen those unceasing Revolutions of Summer and Winter, of Day and Night, bosore they knew the Cause to be the Earth's double Motion (a).

Even

⁽a) This Distinction of first to Man, and first to Nature, was greatly regarded in the Peripatetic Philosophy. See Arist. Phys. Auscult. 1. 1. c. 1. Themistius's Comment on the same, Poster. Analyt. 1. 1. c. 2. De Anima, 1. 2. c. 2. It leads us, when properly regarded, to a very important Distinction between

tween Intelligence Divine and Intelligence Human. God may be said to view the First, as first; and the Last, as last; that is, he views Effects thro' Causes in

Ch. II. Even in Matters of Art and buman Creation, if we except a few Artists and cri-

tical

Human Na-

walketh;

their natural Order. MAN views the Last, as first; and the First, as last; that is, he views Causes thro' Effects, in an inverse Order. And hence the Meaning of that Passage in Aristotle: ωσπερ γαρ τα . των νυκλερίδων όμμαλα πρός το φέγλο έχει το μεθ' ήμεραν, έτω κό της ήμετέρας ψυχής ο Νές προς τα τη φύσει φανερώταλα πάνλων. As are the Eyes of Bats to the Light of the Day, fo is Man's Intelligence to those Objects, that are by Nature the brightest and most conspicuous of all Things. Metaph. I. 2. c. 1. See also 1. 7. c. 4. and Ethic. Nicom. 1. 1. c. 4. Ammonius, reasoning in the same way, says very pertinently to the Subject of this Treatise—'Αγαπητον τη ανθρωπίνη φύσει, έχ των ατελες έρων κο συνθέτων έπὶ τὰ απλές τρα η τελειότερα προϊέναι τα γαρ σύνθετα μάλλον συνήθη ήμιν, κ γνωριμώτερα. "Ουτω γέν κ ό παις

είραι μεν λύγον, κ έιπείν, Σωκράτης περιπαίει, οίδε. τέτου δὲ ἀναλύσαι εἰς ὄνομα κὰ ρῆμα, κὰ ταῦτα εἰς

ture may be well contented to advance from the more imperfect and complex to the more simple and perfect; for the complex Subjects are more familiar to us, and better known. Thus therefore it is that even a Child knows how to put a Sentence together, and fay, Socrates

συλλαβάς, κάκεινα είς τοιχεία, εκέτι"

tical Observers, the rest look no higher Ch. II. than to the Practice and mere Work, knowing nothing of those Principles, on which the whole depends.

Thus in Speech for example—All men, even the lowest, can speak their Mother-Tongue. Yet how many of this multitude can neither write, nor even read? How many of those, who are thus far literate, know nothing of that Grammar, which respects the Genius of their own Language? How few then must be those, who know Grammar univer-SAL; that Grammar, which without regarding the several Idioms of particular Languages, only respects those Principles, that are effential to them all?

'Tis our present Design to inquire about this Grammar; in doing which we **Shall**

walketh; but how to refolve this Sentence into a Noun and Verb, and these again into Syllables, and Syllables into Letters or Elements, here he is at a loss. Am. in Com. de Prædic. p. 29.

Ch. II. shall follow the Order consonant to humans.

Perception, as being for that reason the more easy to be understood.

We shall begin therefore first from a *Period* or *Sentence*, that combination in Speech, which is obvious to all, and thence pass, if possible, to those its *primary Parts*, which, however essential, are only obvious to a few.

WITH respect therefore to the different Species of Sentences, who is there so ignorant, as if we address him in his Mother-Tongue, not to know when 'tis we affert, and when we question; when 'tis we command, and when we pray or wish?

For example, when we read in Shakespeare *,

The Man, that hath no music in himself, And is not mov'd with concord of sweet sounds,

Is fit for Treasons

Or

^{*} Merchant of Venice,

Or in Milton *,

Ch.II.

O Friends, I bear the tread of nimble feet,

Hasting this way-

'tis obvious that these are affertive Sentences, one founded upon Judgment, the other upon Sensation.

WHEN the Witch in Macheth says to her Companions,

When shall we three meet again
In thunder, lightning, and in rain?
this 'tis evident is an interrogative Sentence.

WHEN Macbeth says to the Ghost of Banquo,

——Hence, borrible Shadow,

Unreal Mock'ry bence!——

he speaks an imperative Sentence, founded upon the passion of hatred.

When

Ch. II. WHEN Milton says in the character of his Allegro,

Haste thee, Nymph, and bring with thee fest and youthful follity,

he too speaks an imperative Sentence, tho' founded on the passion, not of hatred but of love.

WHEN in the beginning of the Paradise Lost we read the following address,

And chiefly thou, O Spirit, that dost prefer Before all temples th' upright heart, and pure,

Instruct me, for thou know'ft-

this is not to be called an *imperative* Sentence, tho' perhaps it bear the same Form, but rather (if I may use the Word) 'tis a Sentence precative or optative.

WHAT then shall we say? Are Sentences to be quoted in this manner without ceasing, all differing from each other in their

their stamp and character? Are they no Ch.II. way reducible to certain definite Classes? If not, they can be no objects of rational comprehension.—Let us however try.

'Tis a phrase often applied to a man, when speaking, that be speaks bis MIND; as much as to fay, that his Speech or Difcourse is a publishing of some Energie or Motion of bis Soul. So it indeed is in every one that speaks, excepting alone the Dissembler or Hypocrite; and he too, as far as possible, affects the appearance.

Now the Powers of the soul (over and above the meer + nutritive) may be included all of them in those of PERCEP-TION, and those of Volition. By the Powers of Perception, I mean the Senses and the Intellect; by the Powers of VOLITION, I mean, in an extended fense, not only the Will, but the several Passions and Appetites; in short, all that moves to Action, whether rational or irrational.

I₽

Ch.II: Ir then the leading Powers of the Soul be these two, 'tis plain that every Speech or Sentence, as far as it exhibits the Soul, must of course respect one or other of these.

It we affert, then is it a Sentence which respects the Powers of PERCEPTION. For what indeed is the affert, if we consider the examples above alleged, but to publish some Perception either of the Senses or the Intellect?

AGAIN, if we interrogate, if we command, if we pray, or if we wish, (which in terms of Art is to speak Sentences interrogative, imperative, precative, or optative) what do we but publish so many different Volitions?—For who is it that questions? He that has a Desire to be informed.—Who is it that commands? He that has a Will, which he would have obey'd.—What are those Beings, who either wish or pray? Those, who feel certain

certain wants either for themselves, or Ch.II. others.

If then the Soul's leading Powers be the two above mentioned, and it be true that all Speech is a publication of these Powers, it will follow that EVERY SENTENCE WILL BE EITHER A SENTENCE OF ASSERTION, OR A SENTENCE OF VOLITION. And thus, by referring all of them to one of these two classes, have we found an expedient to reduce their infinitude (b).

THE

⁽b) Pηίεον δεν ότι της ψυχης της ημετέρας διτίας εχέσης δυνάμεις, τας μεν γνωςικας, τας δε ζωτικας, τας κό ορεκίικας λεγομένας (λέγω δε γνωςικας μεν, καθ ας γινώσκομεν έκας ον των όντων, οδον υδεν, διανοιαν, δόξαν, φαντασίαν κ αξισθησιν όρεκλικας δε, καθ ας όρεγόμεθα των αγαθων, η των όντων, η των δοκέντων, οδον βέλησιν λέγω, ωροαίρεσιν, θυμόν, κ έπιθυμίαν) τα ΜΕΝ τέτθαρα είδη τε λόγε (τα ωαρά του αποφαντικόν) από των όρεκλικων δυνάμεων ωροέρχονται της ψυχης, εκ αυτης καθ αυτην ένεργέσης, αλλα ωρός έτερον αποτεισομένης (τον συμβάλλεσθαι δοκέντα ωρός το τυχείν της όρεξεως) κ ήτοι λόγον ωαρ ανθετες

Ch.II. THE Extensions of Speech are quite indefinite, as may be seen if we compare the

ζητέσης, καθάπερ ἐπὶ τΕ ΠΥΣΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ 🕏 ΕΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ καλεμένε λόγε, ή πραγμα, સે દાં જ્રા જેમાત, જેમના લેગી દેમદાં પ્ર મા પ્રદાય દેવાદમાં માક, જ્રા છેડ ον δ λόγω, δεπερ έπὶ τε ΚΛΗΤΙΚΟΥ, η τινός wap' ਕੇਪੀਂड wpάξεως κ) τάυτης, η ώς wapa κρείτου 🕒, ώς έπὶ τῆς ΕΥΧΗΣ, ἢ ώς ταρά χείρου, ώς ἐπὶ τέ **πυρίως παλεμένης ΠΡΟΣΤΑΞΕΩΣ·** μόνον ΔΕ τὸ ΑΠΟΦΑΝΤΙΚΟΝ από των γνωςικών, κ) έςι τέτο έξαγ[ελτικόν της γενομένης έν ήμιν γνώσεως των ωραγμάτων άληθως, ή φαινομένως, διό κ) μόνον τέτο δεκίκόν ές το αληθείας η ψεύδυς, των δε άλλων εδέν. The Meaning of the above passage being implied in the Text, we take its translation from the Latin Interpre-Dicendum igitur est, cum anima nostra duplicem potestatem habeat, cognitionis, & vitæ, quæ etiam appetitionis ac cupiditatis appellatur, quæ vero cognitionis eft, vis est, quâ res singulas cognoscimus, ut mens, cogitatio, opinio, phantasia, sensus: appetitus vero facultas est, quâ bona, vel quæ sunt, vel quæ videntur, concupiscimus, ut funt voluntas, confilium, ira, cupiditas: quatuor orationis species, præter enunciantem, a partibus animi proficiscuntur, que concupiscunt; non cum animus ipse per se agit, fed cum ad alium se convertit, qui ei ad consequendum id, quod cupit, conducere posse videatur; atque etiam vel rationem ab co exquirit, ut in oratione, quam Percunctarithe Eneid to an Epigram of Martial. But Ch. II. the longest Extension, with which Grammar has to do, is the Extension here considered, that is to say, a Sentence. The greater Extensions (such as Syllogisms, Paragraphs, Sections, and complete Works) belong not to Grammar, but to Arts of higher order; not to mention that all of them are but Sentences repeated.

Now a SENTENCE (c) may be sketch'd in the following description—a compound

C 2 Quantity

tem, aut Interrogantem vocant; vel rem: fique rem, vel cum ipfum consequi cupit, quâcum loquitur, ut in optante oratione, vel aliquam ejus actionem: atque in bâc, vel ut a præstantiore, ut in Deprecatione; vel ut ab inferiore, ut in eo, qui proprie Jussus nominatur. Sola autem Enuncians a cognoscendi facultate prosiciscitur: bæcque nunciat rerum cognitionem, quæ in nobis est, aut veram, aut simulatam. Itaque Hæc sola verum falsumque capit: præterea vero nulla. Ammon. in Libr. de Interpretatione.

⁽c) Λόγ@ δὲ φωνή συνθετή σημαντική, ης ένα μέςη καθ άυτα σημαίνει τι. Arift. Poet. c. 20. See also de Interpret. c. 4.

Ch.II. Quantity of Sound fignificant, of which certain Parts are themselves also fignificant.

Thus when I say [the Sun shineth] not only the whole quantity of sound has a meaning, but certain Parts also, such as [Sun] and [shineth.]

But what stall we say? Have these Parts again other Parts, which are in like manner significant, and so may the progress be pursued to infinite? Can we suppose all Meaning, like Body, to be divisible, and to include within itself other Meanings without end? If this be absurd, then must we necessarily admit, that there is such a thing as a Sound significant, of which no Part is of itself significant. And this is what we call the proper character of a (d) Word. For thus, though the

⁽d) Φωνη σημαντική,—ης μέρω εδέν ες καθ άυτο σημαντικόν. De Poetic. c. 20. De Interpret. c. 2 & 3. Priscian's Definition of a Word (Lib. 2.) is as follows

Words [Sun] and [shineth] have each a Ch. II. Meaning, yet is there certainly no Meaning in any of their Parts, neither in the Syllables of the one, nor in the Letters of the other.

If therefore ALL Speech, whether in prose or verse, every Whole, every Section, every Paragraph, every Sentence, imply a certain Meaning, divisible into other Meanings, but Words imply a Meaning, which is not so divisible: it follows that Words will be the smallest parts of speech, in as much as nothing less has any Meaning at all,

 C_3

To

follows...Dictio est pars minima orationis constructa, id est, in ordine compositæ. Pars autem, quantum ad totum intelligendum, id est, ad totius sensus intellectum, autem ideo dictum est, nequis conetur vires in duas partes dividere, hoc est, in vi & res; non enim ad totum intelligendum hæc fit divisio. To Priscian we may add Theodore Gaza.—Λέξις δε, μέρ ο ελάχιςον κατα σύνταξικ Introd, Gram. l. 4. Plate shewed them this characteristic of a Word-See Cratylus, p. 385. Edit, Serr.

Ch. II. To know therefore the species of Words, must needs contribute to the knowledge of Speech, as it implies a knowledge of its minutest Parts.

This therefore must become our next Inquiry.

CHAP. III.

Concerning the species of Words, the smallest Parts of Speech.

E T us first search for the Species Ch.III. of Words among those Parts of Speech, commonly received by Grammarians. For example, in one of the passages above cited.—

The Man, that hath no music in himself,

And is not mov'd with concord of sweet

founds,

Is sit for treasons—

Here the Word [The] is an ARTICLE;—
[Man] [No] [Music] [Concord] [Sweet]
[Sounds] [Fit] [Treasons] are all Nouns,
some Substantive, and some Adjective—
[That] and [Himself] are Pronouns—
[Hath] and [is] are Verbs—[moved] a
PARTICIPLE—[Not] an Adverb—
[And] a Conjunction—[In] [with],
C 4 and

Ch.III. and [For] are PREPOSITIONS. In one fentence we have all those Parts of Speech, which the Greek Grammarians are found to acknowledge. The Latins only differ in having no Article, and in separating the INTERJECTION, as a Part of itself, which the Greeks include among the Species of Adverbs.

What then shall we determine? why are there not more Species of Words? why so many? or if neither more nor fewer, why these and not others?

To resolve, if possible, these several Queries, let us examine any Sentence that comes in our way, and see what differences we can discover in its Parts. For example, the same Sentence above,

The Man that bath no Music, &c.

ONE Difference soon occurs, that some Words are variable, and others invariable. Thus the Word Man may be varied into Man's and Men; Hath, into Have, Hast, Had,

Had, &c. Sweet into Sweeter and Sweet- Ch.III. eft; Fit into Fitter and Fittest. On the contrary, the Words, The, In, And, and some others, remain as they are, and cannot be altered.

And yet it may be questioned, how far this Difference is essential. For in the first place, there are Variations, which can be hardly called necessary, because only some Languages have them, and others have them not. Thus the Greeks have the dual Variation, which is unknown both to the Moderns and to the ancient Latins. Thus the Greeks and Latins vary their Adjectives by the triple Variation of Gender, Case, and Number; whereas the English never vary them in any of those ways, but thro' all kinds of Concord preserve them still the same. Nay even those very Variations, which appear most necessary, may have their places supplied by other methods; fome by Auxiliars, as when for Bruti, or Bruto, we say, of Brutus, to Brutus:

Ch.III. Brutus; some by meer Position, as when for Brutum amavit Cassius, we say, Cassius lov'd Brutus. For here the Accusative, which in Latin is known any where from its Variation, is in English only known from its Position or place.

Ir then the Distinction of Variable and Invariable will not answer our purpose, let us look farther for some other more effential.

Suppose then we should dissolve the Sentence above cited, and view its several Parts as they stand separate and detached. Some 'tis plain still preserve a Meaning (such as Man, Music, Sweet, &c.) others on the contrary immediately lose it (such as, And, The, With, &c.) Not that these last have no meaning at all, but in fact they never have it, but when in company, or associated.

Now it should seem that this Distinction, if any, was essential. For all Words

Words are fignificant, or else they would Ch.III. not be Words; and if every thing not abfolute, is of course relative, then will all
Words be fignificant either absolutely or relatively.

WITH respect therefore to this Distinction, the first sort of Words may be call'd fignificant by themselves; the latter may be call'd fignificant by relation; or if we like it better, the first sort may be call'd Principals, the latter Accessories. The first are like those stones in the basis of an Arch, which are able to support themselves, even when the Arch is destroyed; the latter are like those stones in its Summit or Curve, which can no longer stand, than while the whole sub-sists (e).

§ This

⁽e) Apollonius of Alexandria (one of the acutest Authors that ever wrote on the subject of Grammar) illustrates the different power of Words, by the different power of Letters. "Ετι, δυ τρόπου τῶυ ςοιχείων τὰ μέν ἐςι φωνήντα, ὰ κὰ καθ ἐμυτὰ φωνήν ἀποτελεῖ"

Ch.III. § This Distinction being admitted, we thus pursue our Speculations. All things what-

τα δε σύμφωνα, απερ ανευ των φωνηένων εκ έχει ρητην την έκφωνησιν. του αυτον τρόπον ές ν έπινοήσαι κα πί των λέξεων. αι μέν γαρ αυθών, τρόπον τινα των φωνπέντων, ρηταί έισι' καθάπερ έπὶ τῶν ρημάτων, Θνομάτων, ακτωνυμιών, επιβρημάτων - άι δε, ώσπερεί σύμφωνα, αναμένεσι τα φωνήεντα, ε δυνάμενα κατ' ίδιαν ρητά είναι-καθάπερ ἐπὶ τῶν ωροθέσεων, τῶν ἄρθρων, τῶν συνδέσμων τα γαρτοιαύτα αξί των μορίων συσσημαίνει. In the same manner, as of the Elements or Letters, some are Vowels, which of themselves complete a Sound; others are Confonants, which without the help of Vowels have no express Vocality; so likewise may we conceive as to the nature of Words. Some of them, like Vowels, are of themselves expressive, as is the case of Verbs, Nouns, Pranouns, and Adverbs; others, like Consonants, wait for their Vowels, being unable to become expressive by their own proper strength, as is the case of Prepositions, Articles, and Conjunctions; for these parts of Speech are always Confignificant, that is, are only fignificant, when afsociated to something else. Apollon. de Syntaxi. L. 1. Itaque quibusdam philosophis placuit nomen & VERBUM SOLAS ESSE PARTES ORATIONIS; cætera vero, Adminicula vel Juncturas earum: .quomodo navium partes sunt tabulæ & trabes, cætera autem (id est, cera, stuppa, & clavi & similia) vincula & conglutinationes 2

whatever either exist as the Energies, or Ch.III. Affections, of some other thing, or without being the Energies or Affections of some other thing. If they exist as the Energies or Affections of something else, then are they called ATTRIBUTES. Thus to think is the attribute of a Man; to be white, of a Swan; to fly, of an Eagle; to be four-footed, of a Horse. If they exist not after this manner, then are they Thus Man. call'd Substances*. Swan, Eagle, and Horse, are none of them Attributes, but all Substances, because however they may exist in Time and Place, yet neither of these, nor of any thing else, do they exist as Energies or Affections.

And

tiones partium navis (hoc est, tabularum & trabium) non partes navis dicuntur. Prisc. L. XI. 913.

^{*} Substances.] Thus Aristotle. Νῦν μὲν ἔν τύπω ἔιρηται, τί ωστ' ἐςὶν ἡ ἐσία, ὅτι τὸ μὴ καθ' ὑποκειμένε, ἀλλὰ καθ' ἔ τὰ ἄλλα. Metaph. Z. γ. p. 106. Ed. Sylb.

Ch.III. And thus all things what soever, being either (f) Substances or Attributes, it sollows of course that all Words, which are fignificant as Principals, must needs be significant of either the one or the other. If they are fignificant of Substances, they are call'd Substantives; if of Attributes, they are call'd Attributives. So that ALL Words whatever, fignificant as Principals, are either Substantives or Attributives.

AGAIN, as to Words, which are only fignificant as Accessories, they acquire a Signification either from being associated to one Word, or else to many. If to one Word alone, then as they can do no more than in some manner define or determine, they may justly for that reason be called

DE-

⁽f) This division of things into Substance and Attribute seems to have been admitted by Philosophers of all Secus and Ages. See Categor. c. 2. Metaphys. L. VII. c. 1. De Calo, L. III. c. 1.

DEFINITIVES. If to many Words at Ch.III. once, then as they serve to no other purpose than to connect, they are called for that reason by the name of CONNECTIVES.

AND thus it is that all Words whatever are either Principals or Accessories;
or under other Names, either fignificant
from themselves, or fignificant by relation.

—If fignificant from themselves, they are
either Substantives or Attributives; if
fignificant by relation, they are either
Definitives or Connectives. So that under one of these four Species, Substantives, Attributives, Definitives, and Connectives, are All
Words, however different, in a manner
included.

IF any of these Names seem new and unusual, we may introduce others more usual, by calling the Substantives, Nouns; the Attributives, VERBS; the Definitives,

ARTI-

Ch.III. Articles; and the Connectives, Conjunctions.

SHOU'D it be ask'd, what then becomes of Pronouns, Adverbs, Prepositions, and Interjections; the answer is, either they must be found included within the Species above-mentioned, or else must be admitted for so many Species by themfelves.

§ THERE were various opinions in ancient days, as to the *number* of these Parts, or Elements of Speech.

Plato in his * Sophist mentions only two, the Noun and the Verb. Aristotle mentions no more, where he treats of + Propositions. Not that those acute Philosophers were ignorant of the other Parts, but they spoke with reference to Logic or

Dia-

^{*} Tom. I. p. 261. Edit. Ser.

[†] De Interpr. c. 2 & 3.

Dialectic (g), confidering the Essence of Ch.III. Speech as contained in these two, because these alone combined make a persect assertive Sentence, which none of the rest without them are able to effect. Hence therefore Aristotle in his * treatise of Poetry (where he was to lay down the ele-

ments

⁽g) Partes igitur orationis funt secundum Dialecticos duæ, Nomen & Verbum; quia hæ solæ etiam per se conjunctæ plenam faciunt orationem; alias autem partes συικαθηγορήματα, hoc est, consignificantia appellabant. Priscian. 1. 2. p. 574. Edit. Putschii. Existit hic quadam quastio, cur duo tantum, Nomen & Verbum. se (Aristoteles sc.) determinare promittat, cum plures partes orationis esse videantur. Quibus hoc dicendum est, tantum Aristotelem hoc libro diffinisse, quantum illi ad id, quod instituerat tractare, suffecit. Tractat namque de simplici enuntiativa oratione, quæ scilicet hujusmodi est, ut junctis tantum Verbis et Nominibus componatur. - Quare superfluum est quærere, cur alias quoque, quæ videntur orationis partes, non propesuerit, qui non totius simpliciter orationis, sed tantum simplicis orationis instituit elementa Boetius in Libr. de Interpretat. p. 295. Apollonius from the above principles elegantly calls the Noun and VERB, τα έμψυχότατα μέςη τε λίγε, the most animated parts of Speech. De Syntaxi, l. 1. c. 3. p: 24. See also Plutarch. Quast. Platon. p. 1009.

^{*} Poet. Cap. 20.

Ch.III. ments of a more variegated speech) adds the Article and Conjunction to the Noun and Verb, and so adopts the same Parts, with those established in this Treatise. To Aristotle's authority (if indeed better can be required) may be added that also of the elder Stoics (b).

THE latter Stoics instead of sour Parts made sive, by dividing the Noun into the Appellative and Proper. Others increased the number, by detaching the Pronoun from the Noun; the Participle and Adverb from the Verb; and the Preposition from the Conjunction. The Latin Grammarians went farther, and detached the Interjection from the Adverb, within which by the Greeks it was always included, as a Species.

WE

⁽h) For this we have the authority of Dionysius of Halicarnassus, De Struct. Orat. Sect. 2. whom Quintilian follows, Inst. 1. 1. c. 4. Diogenes Laertius and Priscian make them always to have admitted five Parts. See Priscian, as before, and Laertius, Lib. VII. Segm. 57.

We are told indeed by (i) Dionyfius of Ch.III. Halicarnassus and Quintilian, that Aristotle, with Theodectes, and the more early writers, held but three Parts of speech, the Noun, the Verb, and the Conjunction. This, it must be owned, accords with the oriental Tongues, whose Grammars (we are (k) told) admit no other. But as to Aristotle, we have his own authority to assert the contrary, who not only enumerates the four Species which we have adopted, but ascertains them each by a proper Definition *.

 \mathbf{D}_{2}

To

⁽i) See the places quoted in the note immediatelypreceding.

⁽k) Antiquissma eorum est opinio, qui tres classes saciunt. Estque bæc Arabum quoque sententia—Hebræi
quoque (qui, cum Arabes Grammaticam scribere desinerent,
artem eam demum scribere cæperunt, quod ante annos contigit circiter quadringentos) Hebræi, inquam, hac in re secuti
sunt magistros suos Arabes.—Immo vero trium classum numerum aliæ etiam Orientis linguæ retinent. Dubium,
utrum eå in re Orientales imitati sunt antiquos Græcorum,
an hi potius secuti sunt Orientalium exemplum. Utua est,
etiam veteres Græcos tres tantum partes agnovisse, non
solum autor est Dionysius, &c. Voss. de Analog. 1. 1.
c. 1. See also Sanctii Minerv. l. 1. 7. 2.

^{*} Sup. p. 34.

Ch.III. To conclude—the Subject of the following Chapters will be a distinct and separate consideration of the Noun, the Verb, the Article, and the Conjunction; which four, the better (as we apprehend) to express their respective natures, we chuse to call Substantives, Attributives, Definitives, and Connectives.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Concerning Substantives, properly so called.

SUBSTANTIVES are all those principal Ch.IV. Words, which are significant of Substances, considered as Substances.

THE first fort of Substances are the NATURAL, such as Animal, Vegetable, Man, Oak.

THERE are other Substances of our own making. Thus by giving a Figure not natural to natural Materials, we create such Substances, as House, Ship, Watch, Telescope, &c.

AGAIN, by a more refined operation of our Mind alone, we abstract any Attribute from its necessary subject, and consider it apart, devoid of its dependence. For example, from Body we abstract to Fly;

D 3 from

Ch.IV. from Surface, the being White; from Soul, the being Temperate.

And thus it is we convert even Attrbutes into Substances, denoting them on this occasion by proper Substantives, such as Flight, Whiteness, Temperance; or else by others more general, such as Motion, Colour, Virtue. These we call AB-STRACT SUBSTANCES; the second sort we call ARTIFICIAL.

Now all those several Substances have their Genus, their Species, and their Individuals. For example, in natural Substances, Animal is a Genus; Man, a Species; Alexander, an Individual. In artificial Substances, Edifice is a Genus; Palace, a Species; the Vatican, an Individual. In abstract Substances, Motion is a Genus; Flight, a Species; this Flight or that Flight are Individuals.

As therefore every (a) GENUS may be Ch.IV. found whole and intire in each one of its Species; (for thus Man, Horse, and Dog, are each of them distinctly a complete and intire Animal) and as every Species may be found whole and intire in each one of its Individuals; (for thus Socrates, Plato, and Xenophon, are each of them completely and distinctly a Man) hence it is, that every Genus, tho' ONE, is multiplied into MANY; and every Species, tho' ONE, is also multiplied into MANY, by reference to those beings, which are their proper subordinates. Since then no individual bas any fuch subordinates, it can never in strictness be considered as MANY, and so is truly an Individual as well in Nature as in Name.

D 4

FROM

⁽a) This is what Plato seems to have expressed in a manner somewhat mysterious, when he talks of μίαν ἰδίαν διὰ πολλῶν, ἐνὸς ἐκάς κειμένε χωρὶς, πάνλη διατεταμένεν—κ) πολλὰς, ἐτέρας ἀλλήλων, ὑπὸ μιᾶς εξωθεν περιεχομένας. Sophist. p. 253. Edit. Serrani. For the common definition of Genus and Species, see the stagoge or Introduction of Perphyry to Aristothe's Logic.

Ch.IV. From these Principles it is, that Words following the nature and genius of Things, such Substantives admit of Number as denote Genera or Species, while those, which denote (b) Individuals, in strictness admit it not.

BESIDES

(b) Yet fometimes Individuals have plurality or Number, from the causes following. In the first place the Individuals of the human race are so large a multitude, even in the smallest nation, that it would be difficult to invent a new Name for every new-born Individual. Hence then instead of one only being call'd Marcus, and one only Antonius, it happens that many are called Marcus and many called Antonius; and thus 'tis the Romans had their Plurals, Marci and Antonii, as we in later days have our Marks and our Anthonies. Now the Plurals of this sort may be well called accidental, because it is merely by chance that the Names coincide.

There feems more reason for such Plurals, as the Ptolemics, Scipios, Catos, or (to instance in modern names) the Howards, Pelhams, and Montagues; because a Ramor Family is like a smaller sort of Species; so that the family Name extends to the Kindred, as the specific Name extends to the Individuals.

A third cause which contributed to make proper Names become Plural, was the high Character or Eminence of some one Individual, whose Name became afterwards a kind of common Appellative, to denote all

Besides Number, another character-Ch.IV. istic, visible in Substances, is that of Sex. Every Substance is either Male or Female; or both Male and Female; or neither one nor the other. So that with respect to Sexes and their Negation, all Substances conceiveable are comprehended under this fourfold consideration.

Now the existence of *Hermaphrodites* being rare, if not doubtful; hence Language, only regarding those distinctions which

those, who had pretensions to merit in the same way. Thus every great *Critic* was call'd an *Aristarchus*; every great *Warrior*, an *Alexander*; every great *Beauty*, a *Helen*, &c.

A DANIEL come to Judgment! yea a DANIEL, cries Shylock in the Play, when he would express the wisdom of the young Lawyer.

So Martial in that well known verse,

Sint MÆCENATES, non deer unt, Flacce, MARONES. So Lucilius,

AIΓΙΛΙΠΟΙ montes, ÆTHNÆ omnes, asperi A-THONES.

πόσοι ΦΑΕΘΟΝΤΕΣ, ή ΔΕΥΚΑΛΙΩΝΕΣ. Lucian in Timon. T. I. p. 108,

Ch. IV. which are more obvious, confiders Words denoting Substances to be either MASCU-LINE, FEMININE, or NEUTER *.

As to our own Species, and all those animal Species, which have reference to common Life, or of which the Male and the Female, by their fize, form, colour, &c. are eminently distinguished, most Languages have different Substantives, to denote the Male and the Female. But as to those animal Species, which either less frequently occur, or of which one Sex is less apparently distinguished from the other, in these a single Substantive commonly serves for both Sexes.

In

^{*} After this manner they are diftinguished by Aristotle. Τῶν ὀνομάτων τὰ μὲν ἄρρενα, τὰ δὲ Θήλεα, τὰ δὲ μεταξύ. Poet. cap. 21. Protagoras before him had established the same Distinction, calling them ἄρρενα, Θήλεα, κὸ σκέυπ. Aristot. Rhet. L. III. c. 5. Where mark what were afterwards called ἐδέτερα, or Neuters, were by these called τὰ μεταξύ κὸ σκέυπ.

+ In the English Tongue it seems a ge- Ch. IV. neral rule (except only when infringed by a figure of Speech) that no Substantive is Masculine, but what denotes a Male animal Substance; none Feminine, but what denotes a Female animal Substance; and that where the Substance bas no Sex, the Substantive is always Neuter.

But 'tis not so in Greek, Latin, and many of the modern Tongues. These all of them have Words, some masculine, some feminine (and those too in great multitudes) which have reference to Substances, where Sex never had existence. To give one instance for many. MIND is surely neither male, nor semale; yet is NOYE, in Greek, masculine, and MENS, in Latin, seminine.

Ιn

[†] Nam quicquid per Naturam Sexui non adsignatur, neutrum baberi oporteret, sed id Ars, &c. Consent. apud Putsch. p. 2023, 2024.

The whole Passage from Genera Haminum, qua naturalia sunt, &c. is worth perusing.

Ch.IV. In some Words these distinctions seem owing to nothing else, than to the mere casual structure of the Word itself: It is of such a Gender, from having such a Termination; or from belonging perhaps to such a Declension. In others we may imagine a more subtle kind of reasoning, a reasoning which discerns, even in things without Sex, a distant analogy to that great NATURAL DISTINCTION, which (according to Milton) animates the World 1.

In this view we may conceive such SUBSTANTIVES to have been considered as MASCULINE, which were "conspicu-" ous for the Attributes of imparting or communicating; or which were by na-" ture active, strong, and essications, and "that indiscriminately whether to good or to ill; or which had claim to Emi-" nence, either laudable or otherwise."

Тнв

[†] Mr. Linnæus, the celebrated Botanist, has traced the Distinction of Sexes throughout the whole Vegetable World, and made it the Basis of his Botanic Method.

THE FEMININE on the contrary were Ch.IV.

"fuch, as were conspicuous for the At"tributes either of receiving, of containing, or of producing and bringing
forth; or which had more of the passive in their nature, than of the active;
"or which were peculiarly beautiful
and amiable; or which had respect to
"fuch Excesses, as were rather Femiinne, than Masculine."

Upon these Principles the two greater Luminaries were considered, one as Massculine, the other as Feminine; the Sun ("Hair, Sol) as Massculine, from communicating Light, which was native and original, as well as from the vigorous warmth and efficacy of his Rays; the Moon (Sering, Luna) as Feminine, from being the Receptacle only of another's Light, and from shining with rays more delicate and soft.

Ch.IV. THUS Milton,

First in H18 East the glorious Lampwas seen, Regent of Day, and all th' Horizon round Invested with bright rays; jocund to run H18 longitude thro' Heav'n's high road't the gray

Dawn, and the Pleiades before HIM danc'd, Shedding sweet influence. Less bright the Moon

But opposite, in levell'd West was set,

His mirrour, with full face borrowing HER

Light

From HIM; for other light SHB needed none. P. L. VII. 370.

By Virgil they were considered as Brother and Sifter, which still preserves the same distinction.

Nec Fratris radiis obnoxia furgere Luna. G. I. 396.

THE SKY OF ETHER is in Greek and Latin Masculine, as being the source of those showers, which impregnate the Earth.

The

*The EARTH on the contrary is univer- Ch.IV. fally Feminine, from being the grand Receiver, the grand Container, but above all from being the Mother (either mediately or immediately) of every sublunary Substance, whether animal or vegetable.

Thus Virgil,

Tum Pater omnipotens facundis imbribus Æther

Conjugis in gremium LATA descendit,

Magnusalit magno commixtus corpore fætus.
G. II. 325.

Thus Shakespear,

Whose Womb unmeasurable, and infinite
Breast

Teems and feeds all-Tim. of Athens.

So Milton,

Whatever Earth, All-BEARING Mo-THER, yields. P. L. V.

So

^{*} Senecæ Nat. Quæst. III. 14.

[‡] Παμμήτορ γη χαίρε—Græc. Anth. p. 281.

Ch.IV. So Virgil,

Non jum MATER alit TELLUS, viresque ministrat (c). Æn. XI. 71.

AMONG artificial Substances the SHIP (Navis, Navis) is feminine, as being so eminently a Receiver and Container of various things, of Men, Arms, Provisions, Goods, &c. Hence Sailors, speaking of their Vessel, say always, "she rides at anchor," "she is under sail."

TRY (Πόλις, Civitas) and a COUNTRY (Πατρις, Patria) are feminine also, by being (like the Ship) Containers and Receivers, and farther by being as it were the Mothers and Nurses of their respective Inhabitants.

 ${f T}$ HUS

⁽c) — διὸ κὰ ἐν τῷ ὅλῳ τὰν ΓΗΣ φύσιν, ὡς ΘΗΛΥ κὰ ΜΗΤΕΡΑ νομίζεσιν ΟΥΡΑΝΟΝ δὲ κὰ ΗΛΙΟΝ, κὰ ἔι τι τῶν ἄλλων τῶν τοιέτων, ὡς ΓΕΝΩΝΤΑΣ κὰ ΠΑΤΕΡΑΣ ωςοσαγορεύεσι. Arift. de Gener. Anim. L. C. 2.

THUS Virgil,

Ch.IV.

Salve, MAGNA PARENS FRUGUM, Saturnia Tellus,

MAGNA VIRUM-- Geor. II. 173.

So, in that Heroic Epigram on those brave Greeks, who fell at Charonea,

Γαΐα δὲ Πάτρις ἔχει κόλπως τῶν πλεῖς α καμόντων

Σώματα-

Their PARENT COUNTRY in HER bosom bolds

Their wearied bodies .--

So Milton,

The City, which Thou seeft, no other deem
Than great and glorious Rome, QUEEN of
the Earth. Par. Reg. L. IV.

As to the Ocean, tho' from its being the Receiver of all Rivers, as well as the Container

[•] Demost. in Orat. de Coronâ.

Ch.IV. Container and Productress of so many Vegetables and Animals, it might justly have been made (like the Earth) Feminine; yet its deep Voice and boisterous Nature have, in spight of these reasons, prevailed to make it Male. Indeed the very sound of Homer's

— μέγα σθένω 'Ωκεανοῖο,
would suggest to a hearer, even ignorant
of its meaning, that the Subject was incompatible with female delicacy and softness.

TIME (Xpov@) from his mighty Effica-, cy upon every thing around us, is by the Greeks and English justly confidered as Masculine. Thus in that elegant distich, spoken by a decrepit old Man,

* 'Ο γὰρ Χρόν μ' ἔκαμ ψε, τέκτων ε σοφος,

*Απαντα δ' ἐργαζομεν Φ' ἀσθενές ερα †.

Me Time bath bent, that forry Artift, He
That furely makes, whate er he bandles,

worfe.

So

^{*} Ω Χρόνε, σανθοίων θνηθών σανεπίσκοπε Δαϊμον. Græc. Anth. p. 290.

[†] Stob. Ecl. p. 591.

So too Shakespear, speaking likewise of Ch.IV. Time,

Orl. Whom doth HE gallop withal?
Rof. With a thief to the gallows.—
As you like it.

THE Greek Ośwato or Aldne, and the English DEATH, seem from the same irresistible Power to have been considered as Masculine. Even the Vulgar with us are so accustomed to this notion, that a FEMALE DEATH they would treat as ridiculous (d).

TAKE a few examples of the masculine Death.

E 2

Calli-

⁽d) Well therefore did Milton in his Paradise Lost not only adopt Death as a Person, but consider him as Masculine: in which he was so far from introducing a Phantom of his own, or from giving it a Gender not supported by Custom, that perhaps he had as much the Santion of national Opinion for his Masculine Death, as the ancient Poets had for many of their Deitics.

Ch.IV. Callimachus upon the Elegies of his Friend Heraclitus—

'Aι δὲ τεαὶ ζώυσιν ἀήδονες, ἦσιν ὁ πάντων 'Αρπάκτηρ 'Αίδης ἐκ ἐπὶ χεῖρα βαλεῖ.

——yet thy sweet warbling strains Still live immortal, nor on them shall Death His band e'er lay, tho' Ravager of all.

IN the Alcestis of Euripides, Oávaron or Death is one of the Persons of the drama; the beginning of the play is made up of dialogue between Him and Apollo; and towards its end, there is a fight between Him and Hercules, in which Hercules is conqueror, and rescues Alcestis from his hands.

It is well known too, that SLEEP and DEATH are made Brothers by Homer. It was to this old Gorgias elegantly alluded, when at the extremity of a long life he lay flumbering on his Death-bed. A Friend asked him, "How he did?"——

"SLEEP

SLEEP (replied the old Man) is just Ch.IV.

" upon delivering me over to the care of

" bis Brother (e)."

Thus Shakespear, speaking of Life,

—merely Thou art Death's Fool;

For HIM Thou labour'st by thy slight to shun,

And yet run'st towards HIM still.

Meaf. for Meaf.

So Milton,

Dire was the tossing, deep the groans;
Despair

Tended the fick, busiest from couch to couch:

And over them triumphant Death his
dart

Shook; but delay'd to strike-

P. L. XI. 489 (f).

THE

⁽e) Ήδη με Ο ΥΠΝΟΣ ἄρχεται παρακατατίθεσθαι Τ' ΑΔΕΛΦΩΙ. Stob. Ecl. p. 600.

⁽f) Suppose in any one of these examples we introduce a female Death; suppose we read,

THE supreme Being (God, Oeds, Deus, Dieu, &c.) is in all languages Masculine, in as much as the masculine Sex is the fuperior and more excellent; and as He is the Creator of all, the Father of Gods and Men. Sometimes indeed we meet with fuch words as To Πρώτον, To Θείον, Numen, DEITY (which last we English ioin to a neuter, saying Deity itself] fometimes I say we meet with these Neuters. The reason in these instances seems to be, that as God is prior to all things, both in dignity and in time, this Priority is better characterized and exprest by a Negation, than by any of those Distinctions which are co-ordinate with some Opposite, as Male for example is

And over them triumphant Death HER dart Shook, &c.

What a falling off! How are the nerves and strength of the whole Sentiment weakened!

is co-ordinate with Female, Right with Ch.IV. Left, &c. &c. (g).

VIRTUE ('Apern, Virtus) as well as most of its Species, are all Feminine, perhaps from their Beauty and amiable Appearance, which are not without effect even upon the most reprobate and corrupt.

E 4 ——abaʃh'a

(g) Thus Ammonius, speaking on the same Subject -ΤΟ ΠΡΩΤΟΝ λέγομεν, ἐφ' ῷ μὴ δὲ τῶν διὰ μυθολογίας σαραδύντων ήμιν τας θεολογίας ετόλμησέ τις η αβρενωπου, η θυληπρεπή (lege θηλυπρεπή) διαμόρφωσιν φέρειν. 3 τετο ειχότως. τῷ μέν γὰρ ἄμρένι το θήλυ σύςοιχον· το (lege τω) δε ΠΑΝΤΗΙ ΑΠΛΩΣ ΑΙΤΙΩΙ σύςοιχου εδέν. αλλα κή όταν αρσενικώς ΤΟΝ ΘΕΟΝ ονομάζομεν, [ωρος] το σεμνότερον των γενών τε ύφειμένε ωροτιμώντες, έτως αὐτὸν ωροσαγορέυομεν. PRIMUM dicimus, quod nemo etiam eorum, qui theologiam nobis fabularum integumentis obvolutam tradiderunt, vel maris vel fæminæ specie singere ausus est: idque merito: conjugatum enim mari sæmininum est. CAUSA autem omnino ABSOLUTA AC 31M-PLICI nihil est conjugatum. Immo vero cum DEUM masculino genere appellamus, ita ifsum nominamus, genus præstantius submisso atque humili præserentes. Ammon. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 30. b.—ε γαρ εναντίου τῷ Πρώτω εδώ. Aristot. Metaph. A. p. 210. Sylb.

Ch.IV.

---abash'd the Devil stood,

And felt how awful Goodness is, and saw

VIRTUE in her shape how lovely; saw,

and pin'd

His loss-

P. L. IV. 846.

This being allowed, Vice (Kania) becomes Feminine of course, as being, in the συςοιχία, or Co-ordination of things, Virtue's natural Opposite (b).

THE Fancies, Caprices, and fickle Changes of FORTUNE would appear but awkwardly under a Character that was Male: but taken together they make a very

⁽b) They are both represented as Females by Xenophon, in the celebrated Story of Hercules, taken from Prodicus. See Memorab. L. II. c. 1. As to the overexia here mentioned, thus Varro—Pythagoras Samius ait omnium rerum initia essa bina: ut sinitum & institum, bonum & malum, vitam & mortem, diem & noctem. De Ling. Lat. L. IV. See also Arist. Metaph. L. I. c. 5. and Ecclesiasticus, Chap. lxii. ver. 24,

very natural Female, which has no small Ch.IV. resemblance to the Coquette of a modern Comedy, bestowing, withdrawing, and shifting her favours, as different Beaus succeed to her good graces.

Transmutat incertos bonores,
Nunc mibi, nunc alii benigna. Hor.

WHY the FURIES were made Female, is not so easy to explain, unless it be that female Passions of all kinds were considered as susceptible of greater excess, than male Passions; and that the Furies were to be represented, as Things superlatively outrageous.

Talibus Alecto dictis exarfit in iras.

At Juveni oranti subitus tremor occupat artus:

Diriguere oculi: tot Erinnys sibilat Hydris,

Tantaque se facies aperit: tum slammea torquens

Lumina

HERMES.

Ch.IV.

Lumina cunctantem & quærentem dicere plura ·

Repulit, & geminos erexit crinibus an-

Verberaque insonuit, rabidoque bæc addidit ore:

En! Ego victa fitu, &c.

Æn. VII. 455 (i).

HE

(i) The Words above mentioned, Time, Death, Fortune, Virtue, &c. in Greek, Latin, French, and most modern Languages, though they are diversified with Genders in the manner described, yet never vary the Gender which they have once acquired, except in a sew instances, where the Gender is doubtful. We cannot say in again or o again, have Virtus or hie Virtus, la Vertu or le Vertu, and so of the rest. But it is otherwise in English. We in our own language say, Virtue is its own Reward, or Virtue is her own Reward; Time maintains its wonted Pace, or Time maintains his wonted Pace.

There is a fingular advantage in this liberty, as it enables us to mark, with a peculiar force, the Diffinction between the severe or *Logical* Stile, and the ornamental or *Rhetorical*. For thus when we speak of the above Words, and of all others naturally devoid of Sex,

HE, that would fee more on this Sub- Ch.IV. ject, may confult Ammonius the Peripate- tic,

as Neuters, we speak of them as they are, and as becomes a logical Inquiry. When we give them Sex, by making them Masculine or Feminine, they are from thenceforth personified; are a kind of intelligent Beings, and become, as such, the proper ornaments either of Rhetoric or of Poetry.

Thus Milton,

——The Thunder,
Wing'd with red light'ning and impetuous rage,
Perhaps hath spent HIS shafts—— P. Lost. I. 174-

The Poet, having just before called the Hail, and Thunder, God's Ministers of Vengeauce, and so personified them, had he afterwards said its Shasts for his Shasts, would have destroyed his own Image, and approached withal so much nearer to Prose.

The following Passage is from the same Poem.

Should intermitted Vengeance arm again
H1s red right hand—— P. L. II. 174.

In this Place His Hand is clearly preferable either to Her's or Its, by immediately referring us to God him-felf, the Avenger.

I shall

HERMES.

Ch.IV. tic, in his Commentary on the Treatife de Interpretatione, where the Subject is treated at large with respect to the Greek Tongue. We shall only observe, that as all such Speculations are at best but Conjectures, they should therefore be received

I shall only give one instance more, and quit this Subject.

At his command th' up-rooted Hills retir'd

Each to HIS place: they heard his voice and went

Obsequious: Heav'n HIS wonted face renew'd,

And with fresh flourets Hill and Valley smil'd.

P. L. VI.

See also ver. 54, 55, of the same Book.

Here all things are personissed; the Hills hear, the Valleys smile, and the Face of Heaven is renewed. Suppose then the Poet had been necessitated by the laws of his Language to have said—Each Hill retir'd to ITS Place—Heaven renewed ITS wonted face—how prosaic and lifeless would these Neuters have appeared; how detrimental to the Prespopeia, which he was aiming to establish! In this therefore he was happy, that the Language, in which he wrote, imposed no such necessity; and he was too wise a Writer, to impose it on himself. It were to be wished, his Correctors had been as wise on their parts.

BOOK THE FIRST.

ed with candour, rather than scrutinized Ch.IV. with rigour. Varro's words on a Subject near akin are for their aptness and elegance well worth attending. Non mediocres enim tenebræ in filvå, ubi bæc captanda; neque ed, qud pervenire volumus, semitæ tritæ; neque non in tramitibus quædam objecta, quæ euntem retinere possunt *.

To conclude this Chapter. We may collect from what has been said, that both Number and Gender appertain to Words, because in the first place they appertain to Things; that is to say, because Substances are Many, and have either Sex, or no Sex; therefore Substantives have Number, and are Masculine, Feminine, or Neuter. There is however this difference between the two Attributes: Number in strictness descends no lower, than

tn

[•] De Ling. Lat. L. IV.

Ch.IV. to the last Rank of Species (k): GENDER on the contrary stops not here, but descends to every Individual, however diversified. And so much for Substantives, PROPERLY SO CALLED.

⁽k) The reason why Number goes no lower, is that it does not naturally appertain to Individuals; the cause of which see before, p. 39.

CHAP. V.

Concerning Substantives of the Secondary

Order.

DARY RACE of SUBSTANTIVES, a Race quite different from any already mentioned, and whose Nature may be explained in the following manner.

EVERY Object which presents itself to the Senses or the Intellect, is either then perceived for the first time, or else is recognized as having been perceived before. In the former case it is called an Object τῆς πρώτης γνώσεως, of the sinst knowledge or acquaintance (a); in the lat-

⁽a) See Apoll. de Syntaxi, l. 1. c. 16. p. 49. l. 2. c. 3. p. 103. Thus Priscian—Interest autem inter demonstrationem & relationem hoc; quod demonstratio, interrogationi reddita, Priman Cognitionem oftendit;

Ouis

Ch. V. ter it is called an Object της δευτέρας γνώσσεως, of the second knowledge or acquaintance.

Now as all Conversation passes between Particulars or Individuals, these will often happen to be reciprocally Objects τῆς πρώ-THE YVEGEWS, that is to fay, till that infant unacquainted with each other. What then is to be done? How shall the Speaker address the other, when he knows not his Name? or how explain himself by his own Name, of which the other is wholly ignorant? Nouns, as they have been described, cannot answer the purpose. The first expedient upon this occasion seems to have been deter, that is, Pointing, or Indication by the Finger or Hand, some traces of which are still to be observed, as a part of that Action, which naturally attends our speaking. But the Authors of Language

Quis fecit? Ego: relatio vero Secundam Cognitionem fignificat, ut, Is, de quo jam dixi. Lib. XII. p. 936. Edit. Putschii.

Language were not content with this. Ch. V. They invented a race of Words to supply this Pointing; which Words, as they always stood for Substantives or Nouns, were characterized by the Name of 'Antwoonia, or Pronouns (b). These also they distinguished into three several sorts, calling them Pronouns of the First, the Second, and the Third Person, with a view to certain distinctions, which may be explained as follows.

Suppose the Parties conversing to be wholly unacquainted, neither Name nor Countenance on either side known, and the

⁽b) Έχεινο αν Αντωγυμία, τὸ μετὰ ΔΕΙΞΕΩΣ παναφοράς 'ANTONOMAZOMENON. Apoll. de Synt. L. II. c. 5. p. 106. Prifcian feems to confider them so peculiarly destined to the expression of Individuals, that he does not say they supply the place of any Noun, but that of the proper Name only. And this undoubtedly was their original, and still is their true and natural use. Pronomen of pars orationis, quæ pro nomine proprio uniuscujusque accipitur. Prisc. L. XII. See also Apoll. L. II. c. 9. p. 117, 118.

Ch. V. the Subject of the Conversation to be the Speaker bimself. Here, to supply the place of Pointing by a Word of equal Power, they furnished the Speaker with the Pronoun, I. I write, I say, I desire, &c. and as the Speaker is always principal with respect to his own discourse, this they called for that reason the Pronoun of the First Person.

AGAIN, suppose the Subject of the Conversation to be the Party address. Here for similar reasons they invented the Pronoun, Thou. Thou writest, Thou walkest, &c. and as the Party address is next in dignity to the Speaker, or at least comes next with reference to the discourse; this Pronoun they therefore called the Pronoun of the Second Person.

LASTLY, suppose the Subject of Conversation neither the Speaker, nor the Party addrest, but fome Third Object, different from both. Here they provided another Pronoun, HE, SHE, or IT, which

in distinction to the two former was called Ch. V. the Pronoun of the Third Person.

AND thus it was that Pronouns came to be distinguished by their respective PERsons (c).

(c) The Description of the different Persons here given is taken from Priscian, who took it from Apollo-Persona Pronominum sunt tres; prima, secunda, Prima est, cum ipsa, quæ loquitur, de se pronuntiat; Secunda, cum de ea pronunciat, ad quam directo sermone loquitur; Tertia, cum de eâ, quæ nec loquitur, nec ad se directum accipit Sermonem. L. XII. Theodore Gaza gives the fame Distinctions. Πρώτον (πρόσωπον [c.) ῷ περὶ ἐαυίε φράζει ὁ λέγων عَدْنادوه، شَ سدوا عقى سوفج فع ف كذبه المنادي شَ سدوا έτέρυ. Gaz. Gram. L. IV. p. 152.

This account of Persons is far preferable to the common one, which makes the First the Speaker; the Second, the Party addrest; and the Third, the Subject. For the' the birst and Second be as commonly described, one the Speaker, the other the Party addrest; yet till they become subjects of the discourse, they have no existence. Again as to the Third Person's being the subject, this is a character, which it shares in common with

As to Number, the Pronoun of each Ch. V. Person has it: (I) has the plural (WE), because

> with both the other Persons, and which can never therefore be called a peculiarity of its own. To explain by an instance or two. When Eneas begins the narrative of his adventures, the fecond Person immediately appears, because he makes Dido, whom he addresses, the immediate subject of his Discourse.

Infandum, Regina, jubes, renovare dolorem.

From hence forward for 1500 Verses (tho' she be all that time the party addrest) we hear nothing farther of this Second Person, a variety of other Subjects filling up the Narrative.

In the mean time the First Person may be seen every where, because the Speaker every where is himself the Subject. They were indeed Events, as he says himfelf,

-quæque iffe miserrima vidi, `Et quorum pars magna fui----

Not that the Second Person does not often occur in the course of this Narrative; but then it is always by a Figure of Speech, when those, who by their absence are in fact to many Third Persons, are converted into Se-

because there may be many Speakers at Ch. V. once of the same Sentiment; as well as one, who, including himself, speaks the Sentiment of many. (Thou) has the plural (you), because a Speech may be spoken to many, as well as to one. (HE) has the plural (THEY), because the Subject of discourse is often many at once.

But tho' all these Pronouns have Number, it does not appear either in Greek, or Latin, or any modern Language, that those of the first and second Person carry the distinctions of Sex. The reason seems

F₃ to

cond Persons by being introduced as present. The real Second Person (Dide) is never once hinted.

Thus far as to Virgil. But when we read Euclid, we find neither First Person, nor Second, in any Part of the whole Work. The reason is, that neither Speaker nor Party addrest (in which light we may always view the Writer and his Reader) can possibly become the Subject of pure Mathematics, nor indeed can any thing else, except abstract Quantity, which neither speaks itself, nor is spoken to by another.

Ch. V. to be, that the Speaker and Hearer being generally present to each other, it would have been superfluous to have marked a distinction by Art, which from Nature and even Dress was commonly (d) apparent on both fides. But this does not hold with respect to the third Person, of whose Character and Distinctions, (including Sex among the rest) we often. know no more, than what we learn from the discourse. And hence it is that in most Languages the third Person has its Genders, and that even English (which allows its Adjectives no Genders at all) has in this Pronoun the triple (e) distinction of He, She, and It.

HENCE

⁽d) Demonstratio ipsa secum genus ostendit. Priscian. L. XII. p. 942. See Apoll. de Syntax. L. II. c. 7. p. 109.

⁽e) The Utility of this Distinction may be better found in supposing it away. Suppose for example we should read in history these words—He caused him

Hence too we see the reason why a Ch. V. fingle Pronoun (f) to each Person, an I

F 4

to destroy him—and that we were to be informed the [He], which is here thrice repeated, stood each time for something different, that is to say, for a Man, for a Woman, and for a City, whose Names were Alexander, Thais, and Persepolis. Taking the Pronoun in this manner, divested of its Genders, how would it appear, which was destroyed; which was the destroyer; and which the cause, that moved to the destruction? But there are not fuch doubts, when we hear the Genders diffinguished; when instead of the ambiguous Sentence, He caused him to destroy him, we are told with the proper distinctions, that she caused him to destroy IT. Then we know with certainty, what before we could not: that the Promoter was the Woman; that her Instrument was the Hero; and that the Subject of their Cruelty was the unfortunate City.

(f) Quæritur tamen cur prima quidem Persona & secunda singula Pronomina habeant, tertiam vero sex diversæ indicent voces? Ad quod respondendum est, quod prima quidem & secunda Persona ideo non egent diversis vocibus, quod semper præsentes inter se sunt, & demonstrativa; tertia vero Persona modo demonstrativa est, ut, Hic, Iste; modo relativa, ut Is, Isse, &c. Priscian. L. XII. p. 933.

Ch. V. to the First, and a Thou to the Second, are abundantly sufficient to all the purposes of Speech. But it is not so with respect to the Third Person. The various relations of the various Objects exhibited by this (I mean relations of near and distant, prefent and absent, same and different, definite and indefinite, &c.) made it necessary that here there should not be one, but many Pronouns, such as He, This, That, Other, Any, Some, &c.

IT must be confessed indeed, that all these Words do not always appear as Pronouns. When they stand by themselves, and represent some Noun, (as when we say, This is Virtue, or δεικτικώς, Give me That) then are they Pronouns. But when they are associated to some Noun (as when we say, This Habit is Virtue; or δεικτικώς, That Man defrauded me) then as they supply not the place of a Noun, but only serve to ascertain one, they sall rather into the Species of Desinitives or Articles. That there is indeed

indeed a near relation between *Pronouns* Ch. V. and *Articles*, the old Grammarians have all acknowledged, and fome words it has been doubtful to which Class to refer. The best rule to distinguish them is this—The genuine Pronoun always stands by itself, assuming the *Power* of a Noun, and supplying its place—The genuine Article never stands by itself, but appears at all times associated to something else, requiring a Noun for its support, as much as Attributives or (g) Adjectives.

As

⁽g) Το Αρθρον με α ονόμα ο, κ ή Ανίωνυμία ανί ονόμα ο. ΤΗΕ ΑΚΤΙCLE stands WITH a Noun; but THE PRONOUN stands FOR a Noun. Apoll. L. I. c. 3. p. 22. 'Aυία εν τα άρθρα, τῆς πρὸς τα ὀνόμα α συναρτήσεως ἀπος άντα, εἰς τῆν ὑποτεταγμένην ἀντωνυμίαν μεταπίπ ει. Now Artiticles themselves, when they quit their Connection with Nouns, pass into such Pronoun, as is proper upon the occapion. Ibid. Again—"Οταν τὸ "Αρθρον μὴ μετ' ὀνόματω πατω παραλαμδάνηται, ποιήση αι δε σύνταξιν ὀνόματω.

Ch. V. As to the Coalescence of these Pronouns, it is, as follows. The First or Second

ματω ην προεκιεθείμεθα, εκ πάσης ανάγκης είς ανθυνυμίαν με αληφθήσεται, είγε εκ εγινόμενον μετ' ονόματω δυνάμει αντι ονόματω παρελήφθη. When the Article is affumed without the Noun, and has (as we explained before) the fame Syntax, which the Noun has; it must of absolute necessity be admitted for a Pronoun, because it appears without a Noun, and yet is in power assumed for one. Ejust. L. I. c. 8. p. 113. L. I. c. 45. p. 96. Inter Pronomina & Articulos hoc interest, quad Pronomina appearantur, qua, cum sola sint, vicem nominis complent, at QUIS, ILLE, ISTE: Articuli vero cum Pronominibus, aut Nominibus, aut Participiis adjunguntur. Donat. Gram. p. 1753.

Priscian, speaking of the Stoics, says as follows:

ARTICULIS autem PRONOMINA connumerances, FIMITOS ea ARTICULOS appellabant; ipsos autem Articulos, quibus nos caremus, INFINITOS ARTICULOS
dicebant. Vel, ut alii dicunt, Articulos connumerabant
Pronominibus, & ARTICULARIA eos PRONOMINA
vocabant, &c. Prisc. L. I. p. 574. Varro, speaking
of Quisque and Hic, calls them both ARTICLES, the
first indefinite, the second definite. De Ling. Lat.
L. VII. See also L. IX. p. 132. Vossius indeed in
his Analogia (L. I. c. 1.) opposes this Doctrine, because Hic has not the same power with the Greek Article,

Second will, either of them, by them- Ch. V. selves coalesce with the Third, but not with each other. For example, it is good sense, as well as good Grammar, to fay in any Language—I AM HE—Thou ART HE-but we cannot say-I AM THOU-nor THOU ART I. The reason is, there is no absurdity for the Speaker to be the Subject also of the Discourse, as when we fay, I am He; or for the Person addrest; as when we say, Thou art He. But for the same Person, in the same circumstances, to be at once the Speaker, and the Party addrest, this is impossible; and so therefore is the Coalescence of the First and Second Person.

And now perhaps we have seen enough of *Pronouns*, to perceive how they differ from

ticle, ô. But he did not enough attend to the antient Writers on this Subject, who considered all Words, as ARTICLES, which being associated to Nouns (and not standing in their place) served in any manner to ascertain, and determine their Signification.

Ch. V. from other Substantives. The others are Primary, these are their Substitutes; a kind of secondary Race, which were taken in aid, when for reasons already (b) mentioned the others could not be used. It is moreover by means of these, and of Articles, which are nearly allied to them,

(h) See these reasons at the beginning of this chapter, of which reasons the principal one is, that "no Noun, property so called, implies its own Presence." It is therefore to ascertain such Presence, that the Pro-

of Persus,

how the deigie, and the Pronoun are introduced togegether, and made to co-operate to the same end:

Sometimes by virtue of deigis the Pronoun of the third Person stands for the first.

Quod si militibus parces, erit HIC quoque Miles. That is, I also will be a Soldier.

Tibul. L. II. El. 6. v. 7. See Vulpius.

unoun is taken in aid; and hence it is it becomes

[&]quot; equivalent to deizis, that is, to Pointing or Indication by the Finger." It is worth remarking in that Verse

Sed pulchrum est dicier, Monstrani, & dicier,

that "LANGUAGE, tho' in itself only Ch. V. "fignificant of general Ideas, is brought down to denote that infinitude of Par-"ticulars, which are for ever arising, and "ceasing to be." But more of this hereafter in a proper place.

As to the three orders of Pronouns already mentioned, they may be called *Prepositive*, as may indeed all Substantives, because they are capable introducing or leading a Sentence, without having reference to any thing previous. But besides those there is ANOTHER PRONOUN (in

It may be observed too, that even in Epistolary Correspondence, and indeed in all kinds of Writing, where the Pronouns I and You make their appearance, there is a sort of implied Presence, which they are supposed to indicate, though the parties are in fact at ever so great a distance. And hence the rise of that distinction in Apollonius, tais with they observe sivas distance, tais of the solution are ocular, and some are mental. De Syntaxi, L. II. c. 3. p. 104.

Ch. V. (in Greek &, öçiç (i); in Latin, Qui; in English, Who, Which, That) a Pronoun having a character peculiar to itself, the nature of which may be explained as follows.

Suppose I was to fay—Light is a Body, Light moves with great celerity.—

These

⁽i) The Greeks, it must be confest, call this Pronoun υποτακίικον αρθρον, the subjunctive Article. Yet, as it should seem, this is but an improper Appellation. Apollonius, when he compares it to the weoraxlixor or true prepositive Article, not only confesses it to differ, as being exprest by a different Word, and having a different place in every Sentence; but in Syntax he adds, it is wholly different. De Syntax. L. I. c. 43. p. 91. Theodore Gaza acknowledges the same, and therefore adds -- over on x & xuping av in apportable—for these reasons this (meaning the Subjunctive) cannot properly be an Article. just before he says, χυρίως γε μπν αρθρον το προτακ].non-however properly speaking it is the Prepositive is the Article. Gram. Introd. L. IV. The Latins therefore have undoubtedly done better in ranging it with the Pronouns.

These would apparently be two distinct Ch. V. Sentences. Suppose, instead of the Second, Light, I were to place the prepositive Pronoun, it, and say—Light is a Body; it moves with great celerity—the Sentences would still be distinct and two. But if I add a Connective (as for Example an AND) saying—Light is a Body, AND it moves with great celerity—I then by Connection make the two into one, as by cementing many Stones I make one Wall.

Now it is in the united Powers of a Connective, and another Pronoun, that we may
fee the force, and character of the Pronoun here treated. Thus therefore, if
in the place of AND IT, we substitute
THAT, or WHICH, saying LIGHT is a
Body, WHICH moves with great celerity
—the Sentence still retains its Unity and
Perfection, and becomes if possible more
compact than before. We may with just
reason therefore call this Pronoun the
Subjunctive, because it cannot (like

Ch. V. the Prepositive) introduce an original Sentence, but only ferves to subjoin one to some other, which is previous (k).

THE

(k) Hence we see why the Pronoun here mentioned is always necessarily the Part of some complex Sentence, which Sentence contains, either exprest or understood, two Verbs, and two Nominatives.

Thus in that Verse of Horace,

Qui metuens vivit, liber mibi non erit unquam.

Ille non erit liber—is one Sentence; qui metuens vivit—is another. Ille and Qui are the two Nominatives; Erit and Vivit, the two Verbs; and so in all other instances.

The following passage from Apollonius (though somewhat corrupt in more places than one) will serve to shew, whence the above Speculations are taken. Τὸ ὑποτχίικὸν ἄρθρον ἐπὶ ρῆμα ἴδιον φέρεται, συνδετδιμένον διὰ τῆς ἀναφορᾶς τῷ προχειμένῳ ὀνόματι' κὸ ἐντεῦθεν ἀπλᾶν λόγον ἐ παρις άνει καθὰ τῆν τῶν δύο ρῆμάτων σύνθαξιν (λέγω τῆν ἐν τῷ ὀνόματι, κὸ τῆν ἐν ἀντῷ τῷ ἄρθρῳ) ὅπερ πάλιν παρείπετο τῶ ΚΑΙ συνδισμω, Κοινὸν μὲν (lege ΤΟ ΚΑΙ γὰρ κοινὸν μὲν)

THE Application of this Subjunctive, Ch. V. like the other Pronouns, is universal. It may

σαρελάμβανε τὸ δνομα τὸ σροκείμενον, σύμπλεκον \ 🕯 έτερου λόγου σάντως κ) έτερου ρήμα σαρελάμβανε, κ' έτω τὸ, ΠΑΡΕΓΕΝΕΤΟ Ο ΓΡΑΜΜΑΤΙΚΟΣ, ΟΣ ΔΙΕΛΕΞΑΤΟ, δυνάμει τον αυτον αποτελεί το (forf. $\tau \omega$) O · Γ PAMMA TIKO Σ ΠΑΡΕΓΈΝΕΤΟ, KAI AIEAEEATO. The Subjunctive Article, (that is, the Pronoun bere mentioned) is applied to a Verb of its own, and yet is connected withal to the antecedent Noun. Hence it can never serve to constitute a simple Sentence, by reason of the Syntax of the two Verbs, I mean that which respects the Noun or Antecedent, and that which respects the Article or Relative. The same too follows as to the Conjunction, AND. This Copulative offumes the Antecedent Noun, which is capable of being applied to many Subjects, and by connecting to it a new Sentence, of necessity assumes a new Verb also. And hence it is that the Words-the Grammarian came, who discoursed—form in power nearly the same sentence, as if we were to fay-the Grammarian came, AND difcoursed. Apoll. de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 43. p. 92. also an ingenious French Treatise, called Grammaire generale & raisonnée, Chap. IX.

The Latins, in their Structure of this Subjunctive, from to have well represented its compound Nature of part Pronoun, and part Connective, in forming their

Ch. V. may be the Substitute of all kinds of Substantives, natural, artificial, or abstract; as well as general, special, or particular. We may say, the Animal, Which, &c. the Man, Whom, &c. the Ship, Which, &c. Alexander, Who, &c. Bucephalus, That, &c. Virtue, Which, &c. &c.

NAY, it may even be the Substitute of all the other Pronouns, and is of course therefore expressive of all three Persons. Thus we say, I, who now read, have near finished this Chapter; Thou, who now readest: HE, who now readeth, &c. &c.

And thus is THIS SUBJUNCTIVE truly a Pronoun from its Substitution, there being

QUI and QUIS from QUE and IS, or (if we go with Scaliger to the Greek) from KAI and 'OΣ, KAI and 'O. Scal. de Cauf. Ling. Lat. c. 127.

HOMER also expresses the Force of this Subjunctive, Pronoun or Article, by help of the Prepositive and a Connective, exactly consonant to the Theory here established. See Iliad, A. ver. 270, 553. N. 571. II. 54, 157, 158.

BOOK THE FIRST.

ing no Substantive existing, in whose Ch. V. place it may not stand. At the same time, it is effentially distinguished from the other Pronouns, by this peculiar, that it is not only a Substitute, but withal a Connective (1).

And

(1) Before we quit this Subject, it may not be improper to remark, that in the Greek and Latin Tongues the two principal Pronouns, that is to fay, the First and Second Person, the Ego and the Tu, are implied in the very Form of the Verb itself (γράφω, γράφεις, scribo, scribis) and are for that reason never express, unless it be to mark a Contradistinction; such as in Virgil,

Nos patriam fugimus; Tu, Tityre, lentus in umbra Formosam resonare doces, &c.

This however is true with respect only to the Casus rectus, or Nominative of these Pronouns, but not with respect to their oblique Cases, which must always be added, because tho' we see the Ego in Anno, and the Tu in Annas, we see not the Tu or Mu in Annas, or Annast.

Yet even these oblique Cases appear in a different manner, according as they mark Contradistinction, or not. If they contradistinguish, then are they commonly placed at the beginning of the Sentence, or at least before the Verb, or leading Substantive.

G 2

Thus

Ch. V. AND now to conclude what we have faid concerning Substantives. All Sub-

STANTIVES

Thus Virgil

-—Quid Thesea, magnum

Quid memorem Alciden? Et MI genus ab Jove summo: Thus Homer,

'MIN per Seoi doier-

Παΐδα δὶ ΜΟΙ λύσατε φίλην---

where the 'Yuiv and the Moi stand, as contradistinguilhed, and both have precedence of their respective Verbs, the 'Tuiv even leading the whole Sentence. In other instances, these Pronouns commonly take their place behind the Verb, as may be seen in examples every where obvious. The Greek Language went far-When the oblique Case of these Pronouns happened to contradiftinguish, they assumed a peculiar Accent of their own, which gave them the name of έρθοτονημέναι, or Pronouns uprightly accented. they marked no fuch opposition, they not only took their place behind the Verb, but even gave it their Accent, and (as it were) inclined themselves upon it. And hence they acquired the name of Eyxhitixai, that is, The Greeks too had in Leaning or Inclining Pronouns. the first person 'Euz, 'Euoi, 'Eui for Contradistinctives, and Ma, Moi, Mi for Enclitics. And hence it was that Apollonius contended, that in the passage above quoted from the first Iliad, we should read waida & EMOI, stantives are either Primary, or Secondary, that is to say, according to a Language more familiar and known, are either Nouns or Pronouns. The Nouns denote Substances, and those either Natural, Artificial, or Abstract*. They moreover denote Things either General, or Special, or Particular. The Pronouns, their Substitutes, are either Prepositive, or Subjunctive. The Prepositive is distinguished into three Orders called the First, the Second, and the Third Person. The Subsunctive includes G 2

for waida di MOI, on account of the Contradiffinction, which there occurs between the Grecians and Chryses. See Apoll. de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 3. p. 20. L. II. c. 2. p. 102, 103.

This Diversity between the Contradistinctive Pronouns, and the Enclitic, is not unknown even to the English Tongue. When we say, Give me Content, the (Me) in this case is a perfect Enclitic. But when we say, Give Mic Content, Give Him his thousands, the (Me) and (Him) are no Enclitics, but as they stand in opposition, assume an Accent of their own, and so become the true δεθοτονεμέναι.

^{*} See before, p. 37, 38,

Ch. V. the powers of all those three, having fuperadded, as of its own, the peculiar force of a Connective.

HAVING done with SUBSTANTIVES, we now proceed to ATTRIBUTIVES.

CHAP. VI.

Concerning Attributives.

TTRIBUTIVES are all those princi- Ch.VI.

pal Words, that denote Attributes,

considered as Attributes. Such for example are the Words, Black, White, Great,

Little, Wise, Eloquent, Writeth, Wrote,

Writing, &c. (a).

How-

⁽a) In the above lift of Words are included what Grammarians called Adjectives, Verbs, and Participles, in as much as all of them equally denote the Attributes of Subflance. Hence it is, that as they are all from their very nature the Predicates in a Proposition (being all predicated of some Subject or Substance, Snow is white, Cicero writeth, &c.) hence I say the Appellation PHMA or Verb is employed by Logicians in an extended Sense to denote them all. Thus Ammonius explaining the reason, why Aristotle in his Tract de Interpretatione calls λευκὸς a Verb, tells us wasaw φωνην, κατηγορέμενον όρον èν ωροτάσει ωοιέσαν, 'PHMA καλείσθαι, that every Sound articulate, that forms the G4

However, previously to these, and to Ch.VI. every other possible Attribute, whatever a thing may be, whether black or white, square or round, wise or eloquent, writing or thinking, it must first of necessity EXIST, before it can possibly be any thing elfe. For Existence may be confidered as an universal Genus, to which all things of all kinds are at all times to be referred. The Verbs therefore, which denote it, claim precedence of all others, as being effential to the very being of every Proposition, in which they may still be found, either exprest, or by implication; exprest, as when we say, The Sun is bright; by im-

Predicate in a Proposition, is called a VERB, p. 24. Edit. Ven. Priscian's observation, though made on another occasion, is very pertinent to the present. Now Declinatio, sed proprietas excutienda est significationis. L. II. p. 576. And in another place he says—non similitudo declinationis omnimodo conjungit vel discernit partes orationis inter se, sed vis ipsius significationis. L. XIII., p. 970.

implication, as when we say, The Sun Ch.VI. rises, which means, when resolved, The Sun is rising (b).

The Verbs, Is, Groweth, Becometh, Est, Fit, ὑπάρχει ἐςὶ, πέλει, γίγνεται, are all of them used to express this general Genus. The Latins have called them Verba Substantiva, Verbs Substantive, but the Greeks 'Ρήματα 'Υπαρατικά, Verbs of Existence, a Name more apt, as being of greater latitude, and comprehending equally as well Attribute, as Substance. The principal of those Verbs, and which we shall particularly here consider, is the Verb, 'Esì, Est, Is.

Now all Existence is either absorbute or qualified—absolute, as when we say, B is; qualified, as when we say, B is an Animal; B is black, is round, &c.

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⁽b) See Metaphys. Aristot. L. V. c. 7. Edit. Du-Vall.

Ch.VI. WITH respect to this difference, the Verb (1s) can by itself express absolute Existence, but never the qualified, without fubjoining the particular Form, because the Forms of Existence being in number infinite, if the particular Form be not exprest, we cannot know which is intended. And hence it follows, that when (1s) only ferves to subjoin some fuch Form, it has little more force, than that of a mere Assertion. It is under the same character, that it becomes a latent part in every other Verb, by expressing that Affertion, which is one of their Effentials. Thus, as was observed just before, Rifeth means, is rifing; Writeth, - is writing.

> AGAIN-As to Existence in general, it is either mutable, or immutable; mutable, as in the Objects of Sensation; immutable, as in the Objects of Intellection and Science. Now mutable Objects exist all in Time, and admit the feveral Di**flinctions**

stinctions of present, past, and future. Ch.VI. But immutable Objects know no such Distinctions, but rather stand opposed to all things temporary.

AND hence two different Significations of the substantive Verb (1s) according as it denotes mutable, or immutable Being.

For example, if we say, This Orange is ripe, (18) meaneth, that it existeth so now at this present, in opposition to past time, when it was green, and to suture time, when it will be rotten.

But if we say, The Diameter of the Square is incommensurable with its side, we do not intend by (18) that it is incommensurable now, having been formerly commensurable, or being to become so bereafter; on the contrary we intend that Perfection of Existence, to which Time and its Distinctions are utterly unknown. It is under the same meaning we employ this

Ch.VI. this Verb, when we fay, TRUTH 18, or, God 18. The opposition is not of Time present to other Times, but of necesfary Existence to all temporary Existence whatever (c). And so much for Verbs of Existence, commonly called Verbs Substantive.

We are now to descend to the common Herd of Attributives, such as black and white, to write, to speak, to walk, &c. among which, when compared and opposed to each other, one of the most eminent distinctions appears to be this. Some, by being joined to a proper Substantive

⁽c) Cum enim dicimus, Deus est, non eum dicimus nunc esse, sed tantum in Substantia esse, ut hoc ad immutabilitatem potius substantiae, quam ad tempus aliquod referatur. Si autem dicimus, dies est, ad nullam diei substantiam pertinet, nist tantum ad temporis constitutionem; hoc enim, quod significat, tale est, tanquam si dicamus, nunc est. Quare cum dicimus essé, ut substantiam designemus, simpliciter est addimus; cum vero ita ut aliquid præsens significetur, secundum Tempus. Boeth. in Lib. de Interpr. p. 307. See also Plat. Tim. p. 37, 38. Edit. Serrani.

stantive make without farther help a per- Ch.VI. fett assertive Sentence; while the rest, tho' otherwise perfect, are in this respect described.

To explain by an example. When we say, Cicero eloquent, Cicero wise, these are imperfect Sentences, though they denote a Substance and an Attribute. The reason is, that they want an Assertion, to shew that such Attribute appertains to fuch Substance. We must therefore call in the help of an Affertion elsewhere, an (1s) or a (WAs) to complete the Sentence, faying Cicero is wife, Cicero was elequent. On the contrary, when we fay, Cicero writeth, Cicero walketh, in instances like these there is no such occasion. because the Words (writeth) and (walketh) imply in their own Form not an Attribute only, but an Assertion likewise. Hence it is they may be refolved, the one into Is and Writing, the other into Is and Walking,

Ch. VI. Instant, that is to say, during an Extension between two Instants, and this of course gives us the Idea of TIME. As therefore Motions and their Privation imply Time as their concomitant, so VERBS, which denote them, come to denote TIME also (d). And hence the origin and use of TENSES, " which are so many different forms, as-" figned to each Verb, to shew, without " altering its principal meaning, the va-" rious Times in which fuch meaning " may exist." Thus Scribit, Scripsit, Scripferat, and Scribet, denote all equally the Attribute, To Write, while the difference between them, is, that they denote Writing in different Times.

SHOULD

⁽d) The antient Authors of Dialectic or Logic have well described this Property. The following is part of their Desinition of a Verbandian design to apost ampairon xphoon, a Verb is something, which signifies Time over and above (for such is the force of the Preposition, Ispos.) If it should be asked, over and above what? It may be answered, over and above its principal Signification, which is to denote some moving and energizing Attribute. See Arift. de Interpret. C. 3. together with his Commentators Ammonius and Boothius.

SHOULD it be asked, whether Time it- Ch. VI. felf may not become upon occasion the Verb's principal Signification; it is anfwered, No. And this appears, because the same Time may be denoted by different verbs (as in the words, writeth and speaketh) and different Times by the same Verb (as in the words, writeth and wrote) neither of which could happen, were Time any thing more, than a mere Concomitant. Add to this, that when words denote Time, not collaterally, but principally, they cease to be verbs, and become either adjectives, or substantives. Of the adjective kind are Timely, Yearly, Dayly, Hourly, &c. of the substantive kind are Time, Year, Day, Hour, &c.

THE most obvious division of TIME is into Present, Past, and Future, nor is any language complete, whose verbs have not TENSES, to mark these distinctions. But we may go still farther. Time past and future are both infinitely extended.

H Hence

Ch.VI. Hence it is that in universal Time past we may assume many particular Times past, and in universal Time future, many particular Times future, some more, some less remote, and corresponding to each other under different relations. Even present Time itself is not exempt from these differences, and as necessarily implies some degree of Extension, as does every given line, however minute.

HERE then we are to seek for the reason, which first introduced into language that variety of Tenses. It was not it seems enough to denote indefinitely (or by Aorists) mere Present, Past, or Future, but it was necessary on many occasions to define with more precision, what kind of Past, Present, or Future. And hence the multiplicity of Futures, Præterits, and even Present Tenses, with which all languages are found to abound, and without which it would be difficult to ascertain our Ideas.

However as the knowledge of Ten-Ch.VI. ses depends on the Theory of Time, and this is a subject of no mean speculation, we shall reserve it by itself for the following chapter.

CHAP. VII.

Concerning Time, and Tenfes.

C.VII. TIME and SPACE have this in common, that they are both of them by nature things continuous, and as such they both of them imply Extension. Thus between London and Salisbury there is the Extension of Space, and between Yesterday and To-morrow, the Extension of Time. But in this they differ, that all the parts of Space exist at once and together, while those of Time only exist in Transition or Succession (a). Hence then we may gain some Idea of Time, by considering it under the notion

⁽a) See Vol. I. p. 275. Note XIII. To which we may add, what is faid by Ammonius—ουδὶ γὰρ ὁ χρόνω όλω ἄμα ὑφίς αται, ἀλλ' ἢ κατὰ μόνον τὸ ΝΥΝεν γὰρ τῷ γίνεσθαι κὸ φθείρεσθαι τὸ εἶναι ἔχει. ΤΙΜΕ doth not subsist the whole at once, but only in a fingle Now or Instant; for it hath its Existence in becoming and in ceasing to be. Amm. in Predicars. p. 82. b.

notion of a transient Continuity. Hence C.VII. also, as far as the affections and properties of Transition go, Time is different from Space; but as to those of Extension and Continuity, they perfectly co-incide.

LET us take, for example, such a part of Space, as a Line. In every given LINE we may assume any where a Point, and therefore in every given Line there may be assumed infinite Points. So in every given Time we may assume any where a Now or Instant, and therefore in every given Time there may be assumed infinite Nows or Instants.

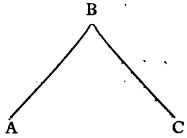
FARTHER still—A POINT is the Bound of every finite Line; and A Now or Instant, of every finite Time. But altho' they are Bounds, they are neither of them Parts, neither the Point of any Line, nor the Now or Instant of any Time. If this appear strange, we may remember, that the parts of any thing extended are necessarily

C.VII. farily extended also, it being effential to their character, that they should measure their Whole. But if a Point or Now were extended, each of them would contain within itself infinite other Points, and infinite other Nows (for these may be assumed infinitely within the minutest Extension) and this, it is evident, would be absurd and impossible.

THESE affertions therefore being admitted, and both *Points* and *Nows* being taken as *Bounds*, but not as *Parts* (b), it will follow,

⁽b) — φανερον ότὶ ἐδὲ μόριον τὸ ΝΥΝ τε χρόνες εσπερ ἐδ ἀι ςιγμαὶ τῆς γραμμῆς ἀι δὲ γραμμαὶ δύο τῆς μίας μόρια. It is evident that A Now or Instant is no more a part of Time, than Points are of a Line. The parts indeed of one Line are two other Lines. Natur. Ausc. L. IV. c. 17. And not long before—Τὸ δὲ ΝΥΝ ἐ μέρω μετρεῖ, τε γὰρ τὸ μέρω, κὰ σύγκεισθαι δεῖ τὸ ὅλον ἐκ τῶν μερῶν ὁ δὲ ΧΡΟΝΟΣ ἐ δοκεῖ σύγκεισθαι ἐκ τῶν ΝΥΝ. Α Now is no Part of Time; for a Part is able to measure its Whole, and the Whole is necossarily made up of its Parts; but Time dath not appear to be made up of Nows. Ibid. c. 14.

follow, that in the same manner as the same C. VII. Point may be the End of one Line, and the Beginning of another, so the same Now or Instant may be the End of one Time, and the Beginning of another. Let us suppose for example, the Lines, AB, BC.



I say that the Point B is the End of the Line AB, and the Beginning of the Line, BC. In the same manner let us suppose AB, BC to represent certain Times, and let B be a Now or Instant. In such case I say that the Instant B is the End of the Time AB, and the Beginning of the Time BC. I say likewise of these two Times, that with respect to the Now or Instant, which they include, the first of them is necessarily PAST TIME, as being previous to it; the other is necessarily Future, as being subsequent. As therefore H4 4 every

C.VII. every Now or INSTANT always exists in Time, and without being Time, is Time's Bound; the Bound of Completion to the Past, and the Bound of Commencement to the Future: from hence we may conceive its nature or end, which is to be the Medium of Continuity between the Past and the Future, so as to render Time, thro' all its Parts, one Intire and Perfect Whole (c).

FROM the above speculations, there follow some conclusions, which may be perhaps called paradoxes, till they have been attentively considered. In the first place there cannot (strictly speaking) be any such

⁽c) Τὸ δὲ ΝΥΝ ἐςι συνέχεια χρόνε, ῶσπερ ἐλέχθη. συνέχει γὰρ τὸν χρόνον, τὸν ϖαρελθόντα κὰ ἐσόμενον, κὰ ὅλως ϖέρας χρόνε ἐςίν ἔςι γὰρ τε μὲν ἀρχη,
τε δὲ τελευτή. A Now or Instant is (as was said before) the Continuity or holding together of Time; for it
makes Time continuous, the past and the future, and is in
general its boundary, as being the beginning of one Time
and the ending of another. Natur. Auscult. L. IV.
c. 19. Συνέχεια in this place means not Continuity, as
standing for Extension, but rather that Junction or Hulding together, by which Extension is imparted to other
things.

be transient as well as continuous, it cannot like a Line be present all together, but part will necessarily be gone, and part be coming. If therefore any portion of its continuity were to be present at once, it would so far quit its transient nature, and be Time no longer. But if no portion of its continuity can be thus present, how can Time possibly be present, to which such Continuity is essential?

FARTHER than this—If there be no fuch thing as Time Present, there can be no Sensation of Time by any one of the senses. For ALL SENSATION is of the Present only, the Past being preserved not by Sense but by Memory, and the Future being anticipated by Prudence only and wise Foresight.

But if no Portion of Time be the object of any Sensation; farther, if the Prefent

[†] Ταυτή γαρ (αισθήσει fc.) δυτε τὸ μέλλον, δυτε τὸ γιγνόμενον γνωρίζομεν, αλλα τὸ σαρὸν μόνου. Αρις. περὶ Μυημ. Α. α.

C.VII. fent never exist; if the Past be no more; if the Future be not as yet; and if these are all the parts, out of which TIME is compounded: how strange and shadowy a Being do we find it? How nearly approaching to a perfect Non-entity (d)? Let us try however, since the senses fail us, if we have not faculties of higher power, to seize this sleeting Being.

THE World has been likened to a variety of Things, but it appears to resemble no one more, than some moving spectacle

⁽d) "Οτι μὲν ἔν ὅλως ἐκ ἔςιν, ἢ μόγις κὰ ἀμυδρῶς, ἐκ τῶν δέ τις ἄν ὑποπίευσειε τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἀὐίἔ γέγονε, κὰ ἐκ ἔςι τὸ δὲ μέλλει, κὰ ἔπω ἐςίν ἐκ δὲ τέτων κὰ ὁ ἄπειρω κὰ ὁ ἀεὶ λαμβανόμενω κρόνω σύκειται τὸ δ' ἐκ μὴ ὅντων συκείμενον, ἀδύνατον ἀν δόξειε κατέκειν ωστὲ ἐσίας. That therefore TIME exists not at all, or at least has but a faint and obscure existence, one may suspect from hence. A part of it has been, and is no more; a part of it is coming, and is not as yet; and out of these is made that infinite Time, which is ever to be assumed still farther and farther. Now that which is made up of nothing but Non-entities, it should seem was impossible ever to participate of Entity. Natural. Ausc. L. IV. c. 14. See also Philop. M. S. Com. in Nicomach. p. 10.

tacle (such as a procession or a triumph) C.VII. that abounds in every part with splendid objects, some of which are still departing, as fast as others make their appearance. The Senses look on, while the fight passes, perceiving as much as is immediately present, which they report with tolerable accuracy to the Soul's superior powers. Having done this, they have done their duty, being concerned with nothing, save what is present and instantaneous. But to the Memory, to the Imagination, and above all to the Intellect, the several Nowsor Instants are not lost, as to the Senses, but are preserved and made objects of steady comprehension, however in their own nature they may be transitory and "Now it is from contemplating passing. "two or more of these Instants under one "view, together with that Interval of "Continuity, which subsists between "them, that we acquire infenfibly the "Idea of TIME (e)." For example: The Sun

⁽c) Τότε φαμέν γεγονέναι χρόνον, όταν τε προτέρε 2) υς έρε έν τη κινησει αισθησιν λάβωμεν. Όρίζομεν 20

C.VII. Sun rises; this I remember: it rises again; this too I remember. These Events are not together; there is an Extension be-

tween

đề τῷ ἄλλο κὰ ἄλλο ὑπολαβεῖν ἀυτὰ, κὰ μεταξύ τι αυτών έτερον όταν γαρ τα άκρα έτερα το μέσο γοήσωμευ, κ δύε ειπη ή ψυχη τα ΝΥΝ, το μεν ωρότερον, το δὶ υςερον, τότε κ τέτο φαμέν είναι XPONON. It is then we say there has been TIME, when we can acquire a Sensation of prior and subsequent in Motion. we distinguish and settle these two, by considering one first, then the other, together with an interval between them different front both. For as often as we conceive the Extremes to be different from the Mean, and the Soul talks of two Nows, one prior and the other subsequent, then it is we say there is TIME, and this it is we call TIME. Natural. Auscult. L. IV. c. 16. Themistius's Comment upon this passage is to the same purpose. Trav yap o ves ωναμνησθείς το ΝΥΝ, ο χθές έίπεν, έτερον σάλιν έίπη τὸ τήμερου, τότε κό χρόνου ευθυς ενενόηθεν, υπό των δύο ΝΥΝ οριζόμενον, οίον υπό ωεράτων δυοίν κά έτω λέγειν έχει, ότι ωοσόν έςι ωεντεκαιδικα ώρων, η έκκαιδικα, οιον έξ απείρε γραμμής ωηχυαίαν δύο σημείοις απο-For when the Mind, remembering the τεμνόμεν@. Now, which it talked of yesterday, talks again of another Now to-day, then it is it immediately has an idea of TIME, terminated by these two Nows, as by two Boundaries; and thus is it enabled to say, that the Quantity is of fifteen, or of fixteen hours, as if it were to sever a Cubit's length from an infinite Line by two Points. Themist. Op. edit. Aldi. p. 45. b.

we may suppose the place of rising the same, or at least to exhibit no sensible difference. Yet still we recognize some Extension between them. Now what is this Extension, but a natural Day? And what is that, but pure Time? It is after the same manner, by recognizing two new Moons, and the Extension between these: two vernal Equinoxes, and the Extension between these; that we gain Ideas of other Times, such as Months and Years, which are all so many Intervals, described as above; that is to say, passing Intervals of Continuity between two Instants viewed together.

AND thus it is THE MIND acquires the Idea of TIME. But this Time it must be remembered is PAST TIME ONLY, which is always the first Species, that occurs to the human intellect. How then do we acquire the Idea of TIME FUTURE? The answer is, we acquire it by Anticipation. Should it be demanded still farther, And what is Anticipation? We answer, that in this

C.VII. this case it is a kind of reasoning by analogy from similar to similar; from successions of events, that are past already, to similar fuccessions, that are presumed hereafter. For example: I observe as far back as my memory can carry me, how every day has been succeeded by a night; that night, by another day; that day, by another night; and so downwards in order to the Day that is now. Hence then I anticipate a similar fuccession from the present Day, and thus gain the Idea of days and nights in futurity. After the same manner, by attending to the periodical returns of New and Full Moons; of Springs, Summers, Autumns and Winters, all of which in Time past I find never to have failed, I anticipate a like orderly and diverfified fuccession, which makes Months, and Seasons, and Years, in Time future.

WE go farther than this, and not only thus anticipate in the senatural Periods, but even in matters of buman and civil concern. For example: Having observed in many past

past instances how health had succeeded C. VII. to exercise, and sickness to sloth; we anticipate future health to those, who, being now fickly, use exercise; and future fickness to those, who, being now healthy, are flothful. It is a variety of fuch observations, all respecting one subject, which when systematized by just reasoning, and made habitual by due practice, form the character of a Master-Artist, or Man of practical Wisiom. If they respect the human body (as above) they form the Physician; if matters military, the General; if matters national, the Statesman; if matters of private life, the Moralist; and the same in other subjects. All these several characters in their respective ways may be said to possess a kind of prophetic discernment, which not only presents them the barren prospect of futurity (a prospect not hid from the meanest of men) but shews withal those events. which are likely to attend it, and thus enables them to act with superior certainty and rectitude. And hence it is, that (if we except those, who have had diviner affistances)

C. VII. ances) we may justly say, as was said of old,

He's the best Prophet, who conjectures

well (f).

From

(f) Μάντις δ' ἄριςος, ὅςἰς ἐικάζει καλῶς. So Milton.

Till old Experience do attain
To fomething like Prophetic Strain.

Et facile existimari potest, Prudentiam esse quodammodo Divinationem.

Corn. Nep. in Vit. Attici.

There is nothing appears so clearly an object of the MIND OF INTELLECT ONLY, as the Future does, fince we can find no place for its existence any where else. Not but the same, if we consider, is equally true of the Past. For tho' it may have once had another kind of being, when (according to common Phrase) it actually was, yet was it then fomething Prefent, and not something Past. As Past, it has no existence but in THE MIND or MEMORY, fince had it in fact any other, it could not properly be called Past. It was this intimate connection between TIME, and the SOUL, that made some Philosophers doubt, whether if there was no Soul, there could be any Time, fince Time appears to have its Πότερον δε μη έσης ψυχής Being in no other region. τιη αν ο χρόνος, απορήσειεν αν τις, κ. τ. λ. Natur. Auscult. L. IV. c. 20. Themistius, who comments the above passage, expresses himself more positively. Εί τοίνυν διχώς λέγεται τότε αριθμητόν κ) το αριθμέμενον, το μέν το αριθμητον δηλαδή δυνάμει, το δε ένεργεία, ταῦτα δὲ ἐκ αν ὑποςαίη, μη ἔντος τε αριθμήFrom what has been reasoned it ap- C.VII. pears, that knowledge of the Future comes from knowledge of the Past; as does knowledge of the Past from knowledge of the Present, so that their Order to us is that of PRESENT, PAST, and FUTURE.

Or these Species of knowledge, that of the Present is the lowest, not only as first in perception, but as far the more extensive, being necessarily common to all animal Beings, and reaching even to Zoophytes, as far as they possess Sensation. Knowledge of the Past comes next, which is superior to the former, as being confined to those animals, that have Memory as well as Senses. Knowledge of the Future

σοντος μήτε δυνάμει μήτε ένεργεία, φανερον ώς ουκ αν δ χρόνος είπ, μη έσης ψυχής. Them. p. 48. Edit. Aldi. Vid. etiam ejuíd. Comm. in Lib. de Au. p. 94.

C.VII: Future comes last, as being derived from the other two, and which is for that reaAn.II.3. fon the most excellent as well as the most rare, since Nature in her superadditions rises from worse always to better, and is never found to fink from better down to worse *.

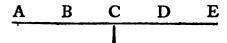
And now having seen, how we acquire the knowledge of Time past, and Time su-ture; which is first in perception, which first in dignity; which more common, which more rare; let us compare them both to the present Now or Instant, and examine what relations they maintain towards it.

In the first place there may be Times both past and future, in which the present Now has no existence, as for example in Yesterday, and To-morrow.

AGAIN,

[•] See below, Note (r) of this Chapter.

AGAIN, the present Now may so far be-C.VII. long to Time of either sort, as to be the End of the past, and the Beginning of the suture; but it cannot be included within the limits of either. For if it were possible, let us suppose C the present Now included



within the limits of the past Time A D. In such case C D, part of the past Time AD, will be subsequent to C the present Now, and so of course be future. But by the Hypothesis it is past, and so will be both Past and Future at once, which is absurd. In the same manner we prove that C cannot be included within the limits of a suture Time, such as BE.

WHAT then shall we say of such Times, as this Day, this Month, this Year, this

I 2 Cen-

C.VII. Century, all which include within them the present Now? They cannot be past Times or future, from what has been proved; and present Time bas no existence, as has been proved likewise *. Or shall we allow them to be present, from the present Now, which exists within them; fo that from the presence of that we call these also present, tho' the shortest among them has infinite parts always absent? If so, and in conformity to custom we allow fuch Times present, as present Days, Months, Years, and Centuries, each must of necesfity be a compound of the Past and the Future, divided from each other by some present Now or Instant, and jointly called PRESENT, while that Now remains within them. Let us fuppose for example the Time XY, which

$f \cdots \frac{X \quad A \quad B \quad C \quad D \quad E \quad Y}{\cdots g} \cdots g$

let

^{*} Sup. p. 104.

let us call a Day, or a Century; and let C.VII. the present Now or Instant exist at A. I fay, in as much as A exists within XY, that therefore XA is Time past, and AY Time future, and the whole XA, AY, Time present. The same holds, if we suppose the present Now to exist at B, or C, or D, or E, or any where before Y. When the present Now exists at Y, then is the whole XY Time past, and still more so, when the Now gets to g, or onwards. In like manner before the Present Now entered X, as for example when it was at f, then was the whole XY Time future; it was the fame, when the present Now was at When it had past that, then XY became Time present. And thus it is that TIME is PRESENT, while passing, in its PRESENT Now or INSTANT. It is the . same indeed here, as it is in Space. Sphere passing over a Plane, and being for that reason present to it, is only prefent to that Plane in a fingle Point at once, while I 3

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C.VII. while during the whole progression its parts absent are infinite (g).

FROM what has been faid, we may perceive that ALL TIME, of every denomination,

(g) PLACE, according to the antients, was either mediate, or immediate. I am (for example) in Europe, because I am in England; in England, because in Wiltshire; in Wiltshire, because in Salisbury; in Salisbury, because in my own house; in my own house, because in my fludy. Thus far MEDIATE PLACE. And what is my IMMEDIATE PLACE? It is the internal Bound of that containing Body (whatever it be) which co-incides with the external Bound of my own Body. Τέ ωεριέχοντος πέρας, καθ' δ περιέχει το περιεχόμενον. this immediate Place is included within the limits of all the former Places, it is from this relation that those mediate Places also are called each of them my Place, tho' the least among them so far exceed my magnitude. To apply this to TIME. The Present Century is present in the present Year; that, in the present Month; that, in the present Day; that, in the present Hour; that, in the present Minute. It is thus by circumscription within circumscription that we arrive at THAT REAL AND INDIVISIBLE INSTANT, which by being itself the very Essence of the Present diffuses PRESENCE throughout

fo, then whenever we suppose a definite Time, even though it be a Time present, it must needs have a Beginning, a Middle, and an End. And so much for TIME.

Now from the above doctrine of TIME, we propose by way of Hypothesis the following Theorie of TENSES.

THE TENSES are used to mark Present, Past, and Future Time, either indefinitely I 4 with-

all even the largest of Times, which are found to include it within their respective limits. Nicephorus Blemmides speaks much to the same purpose. Ένες ώς ἔν χρόνος ἐς ἰν ὁ ἐφ' ἐκάτερα παρακείμενος τῷ κυρίως ΝΤΝ· χρόνος μερικὸς, ἐκ παρεληλυθότος κỳ μέλλοντος συνες ως, κὸ διὰ την πρὸς τὸ κυρίως ΝΤΝ γεινίασιν, ΝΤΝ λεγόμενος κὸ ἀνδός. Present Time therefore is that which adjoins to the REAL NOW or INSTANT an either side, being a limited Time made up of Past and Future, and from its vicinity to that REAL NOW said to be Now also itself. Ἐπιλ. φυσικῆς Κεφ. θ'. See also Arish. Physic. L. VI. c. 2, 3, &c.

C.VII. without reference to any Beginning, Middle, or End; or else definitely, in reference to such distinctions.

IF indefinitely, then have we THREE TENSES, an Aorist of the Present, an Aorist of the Past, and an Aorist of the Future. If definitely, then have we three Tenses to mark the Beginnings of these three Times; three, to denote their Middles; and three to denote their Ends; in all NINE.

THE three first of these Tenses we call the Inceptive Present, the Inceptive Past, and the Inceptive Future. The three next, the Middle Present, the Middle Past, and the Middle Future. And the three last, the Completive Present, the Completive Past, and the Completive Future.

And thus it is, that the Tenses in their natural number appear to be Twelve;

three

three to denote Time absolute, and nine to C.VII. denote it under its respective distinctions.

Aorist of the Present.

Γράφω. Scribo. I write.

Aorist of the Past.

*Eypata. Scripfi. I wrote.

Aorist of the Future.

Γράψω. Scribam. I shall write.

Inceptive Present.

Μέλλω γράφειν. Scripturus sum. I am going to write.

Middle or extended Present.

Τυγχάνω γράφων. Scribo or Scribens fum. I am writing.

Completive Present.

Γέγραφα. Scripfi. I have written.

Inceptive Past.

*Εμελλον γράΦειν. Scripturus eram. I was beginning to write.

Middle

C.VII.

Middle or extended Past.

Έγραφον οτ ἐτύγχανον γράφων. Scribebam. I was writing.

Completive Past.

Έγεγράφειν: Scripferam. I had done writing.

Inceptive Future.

Μελλήσω γράφειν. Scripturus ero. I shall be beginning to write.

Middle or extended Future.

"Εσομαι γράφων. Scribens ero. I shall be writing.

Completive Future.

²Εσομαι γεγραφώς. Scripfero. I shall have done writing.

IT is not to be expected that the above Hypothesis should be justified through all instances in every language. It fares with Tenses,

Tenses, as with other affections of speech; C.VII. be the Language upon the whole ever fo perfect, much must be left, in defiance of all analogy, to the harsh laws of mere authority and chance.

IT may not however be improper to inquire, what traces may be discovered in favour of this system, either in languages themselves, or in those authors who have written upon this part of Grammar, or lastly in the nature and reason of things.

In the first place, as to Aorists. Aorists are usually by Grammarians referred to the Past; such are note, I went; έπεσον, I fell, &c. We seldom hear of them in the Future, and more rarely still in the Present. Yet it seems agreeable to reason, that wherever Time is signified without any farther circumscription, than that of Simple present, past, or future, the Tense is AN AORIST.

 ${f T}$ HUS

C.VII. THUS Milton,

Millions of Spiritual creatures WALK the

Unseen, both when we wake, and when we sleep. P. L. IV. 277.

Here the verb (WALK) means not that they were walking at that instant only, when Adam spoke, but dopicus indefinitely, take any instant whatever. So when the same author calls Hypocrify,

----the only Evil, that WALKS Invisible, except to God alone,

the Verb (WALKS) hath the like aorifical or indefinite application. The same may be said in general of all Sentences of the Gnomologic kind, such as

Ad pænitendum PROPERAT, cito qui judicat.

Avarus, nisi cum moritur, nil recte FACIT, &c. ALL these Tenses are so many Aorists C.VII.

Gnomologic Sentences after the fame manner make likewise Aorists of the Future.

Tu nibil ADMITTES in te, formidine pænæ. Hor.

So too Legislative Sentences, Thou SHALT not kill, Thou SHALT not steal, &c. for this means no one particular future Time, but is a prohibition extended indefinitely to every part of Time future (b).

WE

⁽h) The Latin Tongue appears to be more than ordinarily deficient, as to the article of Aorists. It has no peculiar Form even for an Aorist of the Past, and therefore (as Priscian tells us) the Prateritum is forced to do the double duty both of that Aorist, and of the perseat Prisent, its application in particular instances being to be

C.VII. We pass from Aorists, to The INCEP-

THESE may be found in part supplied (like many other Tenses) by verbs auxiliar. ΜΕΛΛΩ γράφειν. Scripturus sum. I AM GOING to write. But the Latins go farther, and have a species of Verbs, derived from others, which do the duty of these Tenses, and are themselves for that reason called Inchoatives or Inceptives. Thus from Caleo, I am warm, comes Calesco, I begin to grow warm; from Tumeo, I fwell, comes Tumesco, I begin to swell. These Inchoative Verbs are so peculiarly appropriated to the Beginnings of Time. that they are defective as to all Tenses, which denote it in its Completion, and there-

be gathered from the Context. Thus it is that FECI means (as the same author informs us) both weποίηκα and ἐποίησα, I have done it, and I did it; VIDI both ἐώρακα and είδον, I have just seen it, and I saw it once. Prisc. Gram. L. VIII. p. 814, 838. Edit. Putsch.

therefore have neither Perfectum, Plus C.VII. quam-perfectum, or Perfect Future. There is likewise a species of Verbs called in Greek Epetina, in Latin Desiderativa, the Desideratives or Meditatives, which if they are not strictly Inceptives, yet both in Greek and Latin have a near affinity with them. Such are πολεμησείω, Bellaturio, I bave a desire to make war; βρωσείω, Esurio, I long to eat. (i). And so much for the Inceptive Tenses.

THE two last orders of Tenses which remain, are those we called (k) THE MIDDLE
TENSES (which express Time as extended
and

⁽i) As all Beginnings have reference to what is future, hence we see how properly these Verbs are formed, the Greek ones from a future Verb, the Latin from a future Participle. From ωολεμήσω and βρώσω come ωολεμησείω and βρωσείω; from Bellaturus and Εριτιας come Bellaturio and Εριτιο. See Macrobius, p. 691. Ed. Var. ἐ πάνυ γέ με νῦν δὴ ΓΕΛΑΣΕΙΟΝΤΑ εποίησας γελάσαι. Plato in Phædone.

⁽k) Care must be taken not to confound these middle Tenses, with the Tenses of those Verbs, which bear the same name among Grammarians.

C.VII. and passing) and the Perfect or Comple-TIVE, which express its Completion or End.

Now for these the authorities are many. They have been acknowledged already in the ingenious Accidence of Mr. Hoadly, and explained and confirmed by Dr. Samuel Clarke, in his rational edition of Homer's Iliad. Nay, long before either of these, we find the same scheme in Scaliger, and by him (1) ascribed to + Grocinus, as its author. The learned Gaza (who

⁽¹⁾ Ex his percipimus Grocinum acutè admodum Tempora divisisse, sed minus commodè. Tria enim constituit, ut nos, sed quæ bisariam secat, Persectum & Impersectum: su, Præteritum impersectum, Amabam: Præteritum persectum, Amaveram. Rectè sanè. Et Præsens impersectum, Amo. Recte hactenus; continuat enim amorem, neque absolvit. At Præsens persectum, Amavi: quis hoc dicat?—De Futuro autem ut non malè sentit, ita controversum est. Futurum, inquit, impersectum, Amabo: Persectum, Amavero. Non malè, inquam: significat enim Amavero, amorem suturum & absolutum iri: Amabo persectionem nullam indicat. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 113.

[†] His Name was William Grocin, an Englishman, contemporary with Erasmus, and celebrated for his learning. He went to Florence to study under Landin, and was Professor at Oxford. Spec. Lit. Flor. p. 205.

(who was himself a Greek, and one of the ablest restorers of that language in the western world) characterizes the Tenses in nearly the same manner (m). What Apollonius hints, is exactly consonant (n).

Priscian

⁽m) The Present Tense (as this Author informs us in his excellent Grammar) denotes το ἐνες άμενον κρατελὶς, that which is now Instant and incomplete; The Perfectum, το παρεληλυθός άρτι, κρὶ ἐνελὶς τὰ ἐνες ῶτος, that which is now immediately past, and is the Completion of the Present; The Imperfectum, το παραλείαμένου κρὰτελὶς τὰ παρωχημένε, the extended and incomplete part of the Past; and The Plusquam-Perfectum, τὸ παρεληλυθὸς πάλαι, κρὶ εντελὶς τὰ παρακειμένε, that which is past long ago, and is the confection of the præteritum. Gram. L. IV.

⁽n) Έντεῦθεν δὲ ωειθόμεθα, ὅτι ἐ ωαρωχημένε συντέλειαν σημαίνει ὁ ωαραχείμενος, την γε μην ἐνεςῶσαν — Hence we are perfuaded that the Perfectum doth not fignify the completion of the Paft, but present Completion. Apollon. L. III. c. 6. The Reason, which perfuaded him to this opinion, was the application and use of the Particle αν, of which he was then treating, and which, as it denoted Potentiality or Contingence, would affort (he says) with any of the passing, extended, and incomplete Tenses, but never with this Perfection, because this implied such a complete and indefeasible extigence, as never to be qualified into the nature of a Contingent.

C.VII. Priscian too advances the same doctrine from the Stoics, whose authority we esteem greater than all the rest, not only from the more early age when they lived, but from their superior skill in Philosophy, and their peculiar attachment to Dialectic, which naturally led them to great accuracy in these Grammatical Speculations (0).

BEFORE

⁽⁰⁾ By these Philosophers the vulgar present Tense was called THE IMPERFECT PRESENT, and the vulgar Prateritum, THE PERFECT PRESENT, than which nothing can be more confonant to the system that we But let us hear Priscian, from whom we learn PRÆSENS TEMPUS proprie dicitur, cujus these facts. pars jam præteriit, pars futura est. Cum enim Tempus, fluvii more, instabili volvatur cursu, vix punctum habere potest in præsenti, hoc est, in instanti. Maxima igitur pars ejus (sut dictum est) vel præteriit vel sutura est.-Unde STOICI jure HOC TEMPUS PRESENS etiam IMPER-FRCTUM vocabant (ut dictum est) eo quod prior ejus pars, quæ præteriit, transacta est, deest autem sequens, id est, futura. Ut si in medio versu dicam, scribo versum, priore ejus parte scriptà; cui adhuc deest extrema pars, prafenti utor verbo, dicendo, scribo versum : sed IMPERFEC-TUM eft, qued deeft adhuc versui, qued scribatur-Ex eoden igitur Præsenti nascitur etiam Persectum. adfinem perveniat inceptum, flatim utimur PRÆTERITO PERFECTO; continuo enim, scripto ad finem versu, dico, scripfi versum.—And soon after speaking of the Latin Per-

Before we conclude, we shall add a C.VII. few miscellaneous observations, which will be more easily intelligible from the hypothesis here advanced, and serve withal to confirm its truth.

AND first, the Latins used their Praterium Persectum in some instances after a very peculiar manner, so as to imply the very reverse of the verb in its natural signification. Thus, VIXIT, signified, 18 DEAD; FUIT, signified, NOW IS NOT, IS NO MORE. It was in this sense that Cicero addressed the People of Rome, when he had put to death the leaders in the Catalinarian Conspiracy. He appeared in the K 2 Forum.

Perfectum, he says—fiendum tamen, quod Romana PRÆTERITO PERFECTO non solum in re modo completa utuntur, (in quo vim habet ejus, qui apud Græcos wapa-resulves vocatur, quem STOICI TEAEION ENEZ-TOTA nominaverunt) sed etiam pro 'Aogicu accipitur, &c. Lib. VIII. p. 812, 813, 814.

C.VII. Forum, and cried out with a loud voice, * VIXERUNT. So Virgil,

ingens in the state of the stat

Gloria Dardanidum

And

So Tribullus speaking of certain Prodigies and evil Omens.

Hac fuerint olim. Sed tu, jam mitis, Apollo, Prodigia indomitis merge sub aquoribus.

Eleg. II: 5. ver. 19.

Let these Events HAVE BEEN in days of old;—by Implication therefore—But HENCEFORTH let them be no more.

So Eneas in Virgil prays to Phaebus.

Hac Trojana tenus fuerit fortuna secuta.

Let Trojan Fortune (that is, adverse, like that of Troy, and its inhabitants,) HAVE so far FOLLOWED us. By implication therefore, but let it follow us no farther, Here let it end, Hic sit Finis, as Servius well observes in the place.

In which instances, by the way, mark not only the sorce of the Tense, but of the Mood, the PRECATIVE or IMPERATIVE, not in the Future but in the Past. See p. 154, 155, 156.

^{*} So among the Romans, when in a Cause all the Pleaders had spoken, the Cryer used to proclaim DIX-ERUNT, i. e. they have done speaking. Ascon. Pæd. in Vert. II.

C.VII.

And again,

——Locus Ardea quondam

Dictus avis, & nunc magnum manet

Ardea nomen,

* Sed fortuna fuit- Æn. VII.

THE reason of these fignifications is derived from THE COMPLETIVE POWER of the Tense here mentioned. We see that the periods of Nature, and of human affairs, are maintained by the reciprocal fuccession of Contraries. It is thus with Calm and Tempest; with Day and Night; with Prosperity and Adversity; with Glory and Ignominy; with Life Hence then, in the inand Death. stances above, the completion of one contrary is put for the commencement of the other, and to fay, HATH LIVED, or, HATH BEEN, has the same meaning with, IS DEAD, or, IS NO MORE.

K 3

IT

Tibull. III. 5. 32.

^{*} Certus in hospitibus non est amor; errat, ut ipsi:

Cumque nihil speres firmius esse, FUIT.

Epist. Ovid. Helen. Paridi. ver. 190.
Sive erimus, seu nos Fata FUISSE volent.

C.VII. It is remarkable in * Virgil, that he frequently joins in the same sentence this complete and perfect Present with the extended and passing Present; which proves that he considered the two, as belonging to the same species of Time, and therefore naturally formed to co-incide with each other.

- Tibi jam brachia contrahit ardens Scorpios, & cali justa plus parte reliquit.

G. I.

Terra tremit; fugere fera- G. I.

Præsertim si tempestas a vertice sylvis.

Incubuit, glomeratque ferens incendia ventus.

G. II.

——illa nota citius, volucrique sagittâ,

Ad terram sugit, & portu se condidit

alto. Æn. V.

In

^{*} See also Spencer's Fairy Queen, B. I. C. 3. St. 19. C. 3. St. 39. C. 8. St. 9.

He hath his Shield redeem'd, and furth his Sward he draws.

In the same manner he joins the same C.VII. two modifications of Time in the Past, that is to fay, the complete and perfect Past with the extended and passing.

-Inruerant Danai, & tectum omne Æn. II. tenebant.

Tris imbris torti radios, tris nubis aquosæ Addiderant, rutuli tris ignis, & alitis austri.

Fulgores nunc terrificos, sonitumque metumque

Miscebant operi, stammisque sequacibus Æn. VIII. iras (p).

As

For thee the scorpion IS NOW CONTRACTING bis claus, and HATH ALREADY LEFT thee more than a just portion of Heaven. The Poet, from a high strain of poetic adulation, supposes the scorpion so desirous of admitting Augustus among the heavenly signs, that though he has glready made him more than room enough, yet he still . K 4

⁽p) The Intention of Virgil may be better feen, in rendering one or two of the above passages into Engliß.

⁻Tibi jam brachia contrahit ardens Scorpios, & cæli justa plus parte reliquit.

C.VII. As to the IMPERFECTUM, it is sometimes employed to denote what is usual and customary. Thus surgebat and scribe-bat signify not only, be was rising, be was writing, but upon occasion they signify, be used to rise, be used to write. The reason of this is, that whatever is customary, must be something which has been frequently repeated. But what has been frequently repeated, must needs require an Extension of Time past, and thus we fall infensibly into the Tense here mentioned.

AGAIN,

two acts, one perfect, the other pending, and hence the use of the two different Tenses. Some editions read relinquit; but reliquit has the authority of the celebrated Medicean manuscript.

^{——} Illa noto citius, volucrique sagittâ, Ad terram fugit, & portu se condidit alto.

The ship, quicker than the wind, or a swist arrow, CONTINUES FLYING to land, and IS HID within the lefty harbour. We may suppose this Harbour, (like many others) to have been surrounded with high Land. Hence the Vessel, immediately on entering it, was completely hid from those spectators, who had gone out to

AGAIN, we are told by Pliny (whose C.VII. authority likewise is confirmed by many gems and marbles still extant) that the ancient painters and sculptors, when they fixed their names to their works, did it pendenti titulo, in a suspensive kind of Infcription, and employed for that purpose the Tense here mentioned. It was 'Απελλης εποίει, Apelles faciebat, Πολύκλειτ 🕒 ἐποίει, Polycletus faciebat, and never ἐποίησε or fecit. By this they imagined that they avoided the shew of arrogance, and had in case of censure an apology (as it were) prepared, fince it appeared from the work itself, that it was once indeed in hand, but no pretension that it was ever finished (q).

IT

fee the Ship-race, but yet might fill continue failing towards the shore within.

^{——}Inrucrant Danai, & testum omne tenebant.

The Greeks HAD ENTERED and WERE THEN POSSESSING the whole House; as much as to say, they had entered, and that was over, but their Possessing continued still.

⁽q) Plin. Nat. Hift. L. I. The first Printers (who were most of them Scholars and Critics) in imitation of the

IT is remarkable that the very manner, in which the Latins derive these tenses from one another, shews a plain reference to the fystem here advanced. From the passing Present come the passing Past, and Future. Scribo, Scribebam, Scribam, From the perfect Present come the perfect Past, and Future. Scripsi, Scripseram, Scripfero. And so in all instances, even where the verbs are irregular, as from Fero come Ferebam and Feram; from Tuli come Tuleram and Tulero.

WE shall conclude by observing, that the ORDER of the Tenses, as they stand ranged by the old Grammarians, is not a fortuitous Order, but is consonant to our perceptions, in the recognition of Time, according to what we have explained al-

ready

the antient Artists used the same Tense. Excudebat H. Stepbanus. Excudebat Guil. Morelius. Absolvebat Joan. Benenatus, which has been followed by Dr., Taylor in his late valuable edition of Demosthenes.

ready (r). Hence it is, that the Present C.VII. Tense stands first; then the Past Tenses; and lastly the Future.

AND now, having seen what authorities there are for Aorists, or those Tenses, which denote Time indefinitely; and what for those Tenses, opposed to Aorists, which mark it definitely, (such as the Inceptive, the Middle, and the Completive) we here finish the subject of TIME and TENSES, and proceed to consider THE VERB IN OTHER ATTRIBUTES, which it will be necessary to deduce from other principles.

CHAP.

⁽r) See before p. 109, 110, 111, 112, 113. Scaliger's observation upon this occasion is elegant.—Ordo autem (Temporum scil.) aliter est, quam natura eorum. Quod enim prateriit, prius est, quam quod est, itaque primo loco debere poni videbatur. Verùm, quod primo quoque tempore offertur unbis, id creat primas species in animo: quamobrem Prasens Tempus primum locum occupavit; est enim commune omnibus animalibus. Prateritum autem iis tantum, qua memorià pradita sunt. Futurum verò etiam paucioribus, quippe quibus datum est prudentia officium. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 113. See also Seneca Epist. 124. Mutum animal sensu compresendit prasentia; prateritorum, &c.

CHAP. VIII.

Concerning Modes.

the Soul's leading powers are those of Perception and those of Volition, which words we have taken in their most comprehensive acceptation. We have observed also, that all Speech or Discourse is a publishing or exhibiting some part of our soul, either a certain Perception, or a certain Volition. Hence then, according as we exhibit it either in a different part; or after a different manner, hence I say the variety of Modes or Moods (b).

IF

⁽a) See Chapter II.

⁽b) Gaza defines a Mode exactly consonant to this doctrine. He says it is—βάλημα, είι εν σάθημα ψυχης, δια φωνης σημαινόμενου—a Volition or Affection of the Soul, signified through some Voice, or Sound articulate. Gram. L. IV. As therefore this is the nature of Modes, and Modes belong to Verbs, hence it is Apollo-nius

IF we simply declare, or indicate some- C.VIII. thing to be, or not to be, (whether a Perception or Volition, it is equally the same) this constitutes that Mode called the DE-CLARATIVE or INDICATIVE.

A Perception.

--Nosco crinis, incanaque menta Regis Romani--- Virg. Æn. VI.

A Volition.

In appea fert Animus mutatas dicere

Corpora ---

Ovid. Metam. I.

Ir we do not strictly affert, as of something absolute and certain, but as of something possible only, and in the number of Con-

nius observes—τοις ρήμασιν εξαιρέτως φαράκειται ή ψυχική διάθεσις—the Soul's disposition is in an emment degree attached to Verbs. De Synt. L. III. c. 13. Thus too Priscian: Medi sunt diversæ inquinationes Animi, quas varia consequitur declinatio Verbi. L. VIII. p. 821.

C.VIII. Contingents, this makes that Mode, which Grammarians call the POTENTIAL; and which becomes on such occasions the leading Mode of the sentence.

Sed tacitus pasci si posset Corvus, HA-BERET Plus dapis, &c. Hor.

YET fometimes it is not the leading Mode, but only fubjoined to the Indicative. In such case, it is mostly used to denote the End, or final Cause; which End, as in human Life it is always a Contingent, and may never perhaps happen in despite of all our foresight, is therefore express most naturally by the Mode here mentioned. For example,

Ut JUGULENT homines, surgunt de nocte latrones. Hon.

Thieves rife by night, that they may cut mens throats.

HERE

HERE that they rife, is positively asserted C.VIII. in the Declarative or Indicative Mode; but as to their cutting mens throats, this is only delivered potentially, because how truly so-ever it may be the End of their rising, it is still but a Contingent, that may never perhaps happen. This Mode, as often as it is in this manner subjoined, is called by Grammarians not the Potential, but THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

Bur it so happens, in the constitution of human affairs, that it is not always sufficient merely to declare ourselves to others. We find it often expedient, from a consciousness of our inability, to address them. after a manner more interesting to ourselves, whether to have fome Perception informed, or same Volition gratified. then new Modes of speaking; if we interrogate, it is the Interrogative Mode; if we require, it is the REQUISITIVE. Even the Requisitive itself hath its subordinate Species: With respect to inferiors, it is an IMPERATIVE Mode; with respect to ŀ2 equals

C.VIII. equals and superiors, it is a PRECATIVE or OPTATIVE *.

AND thus have we established a variety of Modes; the Indicative or Decla-RATIVE, to assert what we think certain; the Potential, for the Purposes of whatever we think Contingent; the Interrogative, when we are doubtful, to procure us Information; and the Requisitive, to assist us in the gratification of our Volitions. The Requisitive too appears under two distinct Species, either as it is Imperative to inferiors, or Precative to superiors (c).

As

^{*} It was the confounding of this Diffinction, that gave rife to a Sophism of Protagoras. Homer (says he) in beginning his Iliad with—Sing, Muse, the Wrath,—when he thinks to pray, in reality commands. ἔυχεσθαι οἰόμενος, ἐπιτάτθει. Aristot. Poet. c. 19. The Solution is evident from the Division here established, the Grammatical Form being in both cases the same.

⁽c) The Species of Modes in great measure depend on the Species of Sentences. The Steics increased the number of Sentences far beyond the Peripatetics. Befides those mentioned in Chapter II. Note (b) they hadmany

As therefore all these several Modes C.VIIIhave their foundation in nature, so have certain

many more, as may be seen in Ammonius de Interpret. p. 4. and Diogenes Laertius, L. VII. 66. The Peripatetics (and it feems too with reason) considered all these additional Sentences as included within those, which they themselves acknowledged, and which they made to be five in number, the Vocative, the Imperative, the Interrogative, the Precative, and the Affertive. There is no mention of a Potential Sentence, which may be supposed to co-incide with the Assertive, or Indicative. The Vocative (which the Peripatetics called the είδος κλητικόν, but the Stoics more properly ωροσαγοpeutixou) was nothing more than the Form of address in point of names, titles, and epithets, with which we apply ourselves one to another. As therefore it seldom included any Verb within it, it could hardly contribute to form a verbal Mode. Ammonius and Boethius, the one a Greek Peripatetic, the other a Latin, have illustrated the Species of Sentences from Homer and Virgil, after the following manner.

'Αλλὰ τἔ λόγε τε τε ΚΛΗΤΙΚΟΥ, ώς τὸ, *Ω μάχαρ 'Ατείιδη ——
κὸ τἔ ΠΡΟΣΤΑΚΤΙΚΟΥ, ώς τὸ,
Βάσχ' ἔθι, ˇΙει ταχεῖα ——

C.VIII. certain marks or figns of them been introduced into languages, that we may be

κ) τῶ ἘΡΩΤΗΜΑΤΙΚΟΥ, ὡς τὸ,

Τίς, ϖόθεν εἶς ἀνδρῶν;

κ) τῶ ἘΥΚΤΙΚΟΥ, ὡς τὸ,

"Αι γὰρ Ζεῦ τε ϖάτερ

κ) ἐπὶ τέτοις, τῶ ᾿ΑΠΟΦΑΝΤΙΚΟΤ, καθ δν ἀποι
φαινόμεθα ϖερὶ ὁτουῶν τῶν ϖραγμάτων, οἶον

Θεοὶ δέ τε ϖάντα ἴσασιν

ἐ ϖερὶ ϖαντὸς, &c. Εἰς τὸ ϖερὶ Ἑρμ. p. 4.

Boethius's Account is as follows. Perfectarum vero Or ationum partes quinque funt: DEPRECATIVA, ut, Jupiter omnipotens, precibus si slecteris ullis, Dadiende auxilium, Pater, utque bac omina sirma.

IMPERATIVA, ut,

Vade age, Nate, voca Zephyros, & labere pennis.

Interrogativa, ut,
Die mihi, Damæta, cujum pecus?-

Vocativa, ut,
O! Pater, O! hominum rerumque atterna potestas.

ENUNTIATIVA, in quâ Veritas vel Falfitas invenitur, ut, Principio arboribus varia est natura creandis. Boeth. in Lib. de Interp. p. 291.

In

enabled by our discourse to signify them, C.VIII. one to another. And hence those various Modes or Modes, of which we find in common Grammars so prolix a detail, and which are in fact no more than "so many "literal Forms, intended to express these "natural Distinctions" (d).

Att.

In Milton the fame Sentences may be found, as follows. The Precative,

—Universal Lord! be bounteous still To give us only Good——

THE IMPERATIVE,

Go then, Thou mightieft, in thy Father's might.

THE INTERROGATIVE,

Whence, and what art thou, execrable Shape?

THE VOCATIVE

——Adam, earth's hallow'd Mold, Of God inspir'd——

THE ASSERTIVE OF ENUNCIATIVE,

The conquer'd also and enslav'd by war Shall, with their freedom lost, all virtue lose.

(d) The Greek Language, which is of all the most elegant and complete, expresses these several Modes,

C.VIII. All these Modes have this in common, that they exhibit some way or other the

and all distinctions of Time likewise, by an adequate number of Variations in each particular Verb. These Variations may be found, some at the beginning of the Verb, others at its ending, and confift for the most part either in multiplying or diminishing the number of Syllables, or else in lengthening or shortening their respective Quantities, which two methods are called by Grammarians the Syllabic and the Temporal. The Latin, which is but a Species of Greek somewhat debased, admits in like manner a large portion of those Variations. which are chiefly to be found at the Ending of its Verbs. and but rarely at their Beginning. Yet in its Deponents and Passives it is so far desective, as to be forced to have recourse to the Auxiliar, sum. The modern Languages, which have still fewer of those Variations, have been necessitated all of them to assume two Auxiliars at least, that is to say, those which express in each Language the Verbs, Have, and Am. As to the English Tongue, it is so poor in this respect, as to admit no Variation for Modes, and only one for Time, which we apply to express an Aorist of the Past. Thus from Write cometh Wrote; from Give, Gave; from Speak, Spake, &c. Hence to express Time, and Modes, we are compelled to employ no less than seven Auxiliars, viz. Do, Am, Have, Shall, Will, May, and Can; which we use sometimes singly, as when we say, I am writing,

the Soul and its Affections. Their C.VIII. Peculiarities and Distinctions are in part, as follows.

THE REQUISITIVE and INTERROGA-TIVE Modes are distinguished from the Indicative and Potential, that whereas these last seldom call for a Return, to the two former it is always necessary.

IF we compare THE REQUISITIVE MODE with THE INTERROGATIVE, we shall find these also distinguished, and that not only in the Return, but in other Peculiarities.

L₃

The

ing, I have written; sometimes two together, as, I have been writing, I should have written; sometimes no less than three, as I might have been lost, he could have been preserved. But for these, and all other speculations, relative to the Genius of the English Language, we refer the reader, who wishes for the most authentic information, to that excellent Treatise of the learned Dr. Lowth, intitled, A short Introduction to English Grammar.

C.VIII. The Return to the Requisitive is sometimes made in Words, sometimes in Deeds. To the request of Dido to Eneas—

> ——a primâ dic, hospes, origine nobis Insidias Danâum——

the proper Return was in Words, that is, in an historical Narrative. To the Request of the unfortunate Chief——date obolum Belisario—the proper Return was in a Deed, that is, in a charitable Relief. But with respect to the Interrogative, the Return is necessarily made in Words alone, in Words, which are called a Response or Answer, and which are always actually or by implication some definitive assertive Sentence. Take Examples. Whose Verses are these?—the Return is a Sentence—These are Verses of Homer. Was Brutus a worthy Man?—the Return is a Sentence—Brutus was a worthy Man.

And hence (if we may be permitted to digress) we may perceive the

the near affinity of this Interrogative Mode C.VIII. with the Indicative, in which last its Refponse or Return is mostly made. So near indeed is this Affinity, that in these two Modes alone the Verb retains the same Form (e), nor are they otherwise distinguished, than either by the Addition or Absence of some small particle, or by some minute change in the collocation of the words, or sometimes only by a change in the Tone, or Accent (f).

Bur

⁽e) Hye εν σροκειμένη όρις ική έγκλισις, την έγκειμένην κατάφασιν ἀποδάλλεσα, μεθίς αται τε καλεϊσθαι όρις ική—ἀναπληρωθείσα δὶ τῆς καταφάσεως,
υπος ρέφει εἰς τὸ εἶναι ὁρις ική. The Indicative Mode,
of which we speak, by laying aside that Assertion, which by
its nature it implies, quits the name of Indicative—when it
reassumes the Assertion, it returns again to its proper Character. Apoll. de Synt. L. III. c. 21. Theodore Gaza
fays the same, Introd. Gram. L. IV.

⁽f) It may be observed of the INTERROGATIVE, that as often as the *Interrogation* is *fimple* and *definite*, the Response may be made in almost the *fame* Words,

L 4

C.VIII. But to return to our comparison between the Interrogative Mode and the Requisitive.

THE

by converting them into a fentence affirmative or negative, according as the Truth is either one or the other. For example—Are these Verses of Homer?—Response—These Verses are of Homer. Are those Verses of Virgil?—Response—Those are not Verses of Virgil. And here the Artists of Language, for the sake of brevity and dispatch, have provided two Particles, to represent all such Responses; Yes, for all the affirmative; No, for all the negative.

But when the Interrogation is complex, as when we say—Are these Verses of Homer, or of Virgil?—much more, when it is indefinite, as when we say in general—Whose are these Verses?—we cannot then respond after the manner above mentioned. The Reason is, that no Interrogation can be answered by a simple Yes, or a simple No, except only those, which are themselves so simple, as of two possible answers to admit only one. Now the least complex Interrogation will admit of sour Answers, two affirmative, two negative, if not perhaps of more. The reason is, a complex Interrogation cannot consist of less than two simple ones; each of which may be separately affirmed and separately denied. For instance

THE INTERROGATIVE (in the lan- C.VIII. guage of Grammarians) has all Persons of

inflance—Are these Verses Homer's, or Virgil's? They are Homer's—(2.) They are not Homer's—(3.) They are Virgil's—(4.) They are not Virgil's—we may add, (5.) They are of neither. The indefinite Interrogations go still farther; for these may be answered by infinite affirmatives, and infinite negatives. flance—Whose are these Verses? We may answer affirmatively-They are Virgil's, They are Horace's, They are Ovid's, &c .- or negatively-They are not Virgil's, They are not Horace's, They are not Ovid's, and so on, either way, to infinity. How then should we learn from a fingle Yes, or a fingle No, which particular is meant among infinite Possibles? These therefore are Interrogations which must be always answered by a Sentence. Yet even here Custom has consulted for Brevity, by returning for Answer only the fingle effential characteriftic Word, and retrenching by an Ellipsis all the reft, which rest the Interrogator is left to supply from himself. Thus when we are asked—How many right angles equal the angles of a triangle?—we answer in the short monofyllable, Two; whereas, without the Ellipsis, the answer would have been-Two right angles equal the angles of a triangle,

C.VIII. of both Numbers. The REQUISITIVE or IMPERATIVE has no first Person of the singular, and that from this plain reason, that it is equally absurd in Modes for a person to request or give commands to himself, as it is in Pronouns, for the speaker to become the subject of his own address.

AGAIN, we may interrogate as to all Times, both Present, Past, and Future. Who was Founder of Rome? Who is King of China? Who will discover the Longitude?—But Intreating and Commanding (which are the essence of the Re-

The Antients distinguished these two Species of Interrogation by different names. The simple they called Ερώτημα, Interrogatio; the complex, ωύσμα, Percontatio. Ammonius calls the first of these Ερώτησις, διαλεκίνκη; the other, Ερώτησις ωυσματική. See Am. Lik de Interpr. p. 160. Diag. Laert. VII. 66. Quintil. Inst. IX. 2.

[•] Sup. p. 74, 75.

Requisitive Mode) have a necessary re- C.VIII. spect to the Future (g) only. For indeed what

(g) Apollonius's Account of the Future, implied in all Imperatives, is worth observing. Emi yap un yiυομένοις ή μη γεγονόσιν ή ΠΡΟΣΤΑΕΙΣ τα δι μή γινόμενα η μη γεγονότα, έπιτηδειότητα δε έχοντα είς τὸ ἔσεσθαι, ΜΕΛΛΟΝΤΟΣ έςι. A COMMAND has respect to those things which either are not doing, or have not yet been done. But those things, which being not now doing, or having not yet been done, have a natural aptitude to exist hereafter, may be properly said to appertain to THE FUTURE. De Syntaxi, L. I. c. 36. Soon before this he says—'Aπαντα τὰ ωρος ακλικὰ έΓκειμένου μ έχει την τε μέλλοντος διάθεσιν-χηδόν γώρ ἐν ἴσω ἐρὶ τὸ, Ὁ ΤΥΡΑΝΝΟΚΤΟΝΗΣΑΣ ΤΙΜΑΣΘΩ. τῷ, ΤΙΜΗΘΗΣΕΤΑΙ, κατὰ τὴν χρόνε ἔννοιαν τῆ έχκλίσει διηλλαχός, καθό το μέν τροςακλικόν, το δε opisixóv. All IMPERATIVES have a disposition within them, which respects THE FUTURE—with regard therefore to TIME, it is the same thing to say, LET HIM, THAT KILLS A TYRANT, BE HONOURED, or, HE, THAT KILLS ONE, SHALL BE HONOURED; the difference being only in the Mode, in as much as one is IM-PERATIVE, the other Indicative or Declarative. Apoll. de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 35. Priscian seems to allow Imperatives a share of Present Time, as well as Future. But if we attend, we shall find his Present to be

C.VIII. what have they to do with the present or the past, the natures of which are immutable and necessary?

IT

be nothing else than an immediate Future, as opposed to a more distant one. Imperativus vero Præsens & Futurum [Tempus] naturali quâdam necessitate videtur posse accipere. Ea etenim imperamus, quæ vel in præsenti statim volumus sieri sine aliquâ dilatione, vel in suturo. Lib. VIII. p. 806.

It is true the Greeks in their Imperatives admit certain Tenses of the Past, such as those of the Persectum, and of the two Aorists. But then these Tenses, when so applied, either totally lose their temporary Character, or else are used to infinuate such a Speed of execution, that the deed should be (as it were) done, in the very instant when commanded. The same difference seems to subsist between our English Imperative, BE GONE, and those others of, Go, or BE GOING. The first (if we please) may be stilled the Imperative of the Persectum, as calling in the very instant for the completion of our Commands: the others may be stilled Imperatives of the Future, as allowing a reasonable time to begin first, and finish afterward.

It is thus Apollonius, in the Chapter first cited, distinguishes between σκαπίετω τὰς ἀμπέλες, Go to digging the Vines, and σκαψάτω τὰς ἀμπέλες, Get the Vines dug.

It is from this connection of Futurity C.VIII. with Commands, that the Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative, and that to say to any one, You shall do this, has often the same force with the Imperative, Do this. So in the Decalogue—Thou shalt not kill—Thou shalt not bear false witness

dug. The first is spoken (as he calls it) sic waparaou, by way of Extension, or allowance of Time for the work; the second, eis συντελείωσιν, with a view to immediate Completion. And in another place, explaining the difference between the same Tenses, Σκάπθε and Σκάψον, he says of the last, & mover to mi yevemener wposasses, αλλα κό το γινόμενον έν παρατάσει απαγορεύει, that it not only commands something, which has not been yet done, but forbids also that, which is now doing in an Extension, that is to fay, in a flow and longthened progress. Hence, if a man has been a long while writing, and we are willing to hasten him, it would be wrong to fay in Greek, ΓΡΑΦΕ, WRITE (for that he is now, and has been long doing) but PPAYON, GET YOUR WRITING DONE; MAKE NO DELAYS. See Apoll. L. III. c. 24. See also Macrobius de Diff. Verb. Grac. & Lat. p. 680. Edit. Varior. Latini non aftimaverunt, &c.

C.VIII. witness—which denote (we know) the strictest and most authoritative Commands.

As to the POTENTIAL MODE, it is distinguished from all the rest, by its subordinate or subjunctive Nature. It is also farther distinguished from the Requisitive and Interrogative, by implying a kind of feeble and weak Affertion, and so becoming in fome degree susceptible of Truth and Falshood. Thus, if it be said potentially, This may be, or, This might bave been, we may remark without abfurdity, It is true, or It is false. But if it be said, Do this, meaning, Fly to Heaven, or, Can this be done? meaning, to fquare the Circle, we cannot say in either case, it is true or it is false, though the Command and the Question are about things impossible. Yet still the Potential does not aspire to the Indicative, because it implies' but a dubious and conjectural Assertion, 9

Affertion, whereas that of the Indicative C.VIII. is absolute, and without reserve.

This therefore (the Indicative I mean) is the Mode, which, as in all Grammars it is the first in order, so is truly first both in dignity and tise. It is this, which publishes our sublimest perceptions; which exhibits the Soul in her purest Energies, superior to the Imperfection of defires and wants; which includes the whole of Time, and its minutest distinctions; which, in its various Past Tenses, is employed by History, to preserve to us the Remembrance of former Events; in its Futures is used by Prophecy, or (in default of this) by wife Forefight, to instruct and forewarn us, as to that which is coming; but above all in its Present Tense serves Philosophy and the Sciences, by just Demonstrations to chablish necessary Truth; THAT TRUTH, which from its nature only exists C.VIII. ifts in the Prefent; which knows no diftinctions either of Past or of Future, but is every where and always invariably one (b).

THROUGH

(b) See the quotation, Note (c) Chapter the Sixth. Cum enim dicimus, DEUS EST, non eum dicimus nunc esse, sed, &cc.

Boethius, author of the sentiment there quoted, was by birth a Roman of the sirst quality; by religion, a Christian; and by philosophy, a Platonic and Peripatetic; which two Sects, as they sprang from the same Source, were in the latter ages of antiquity commonly adopted by the same Persons, such as Themistius, Porphyry, Iamblichus, Ammonius, and others. There were no Sects of Philosophy, that lay greater Stress on the distinction between things existing in Time and not in Time, than the two above-mentioned. The Doctrine of the Peripatetics on this Subject (since it is these that Boethius here follows) may be partly understood from the following Sketch.

"THE THINGS, THAT EXIST IN TIME, are those whose Existence Time can measure. But if their Existence may be measured by Time, then there may be assumed a Time greater than the Existence of any one of them, as there may be assumed a number greater than the greatest multitude, that is capable

THROUGH all the above Modes, with C.VIII. their respective Tenses, the Verb being

con-

"capable of being numbered. And hence it is that things temporary have their Existence, as it were limited by Time; that they are confined within it, as within some bound; and that in some degree or other they all submit to its power, according to those common Phrases, that Time is a destroyer; that things decay through Time; that men forget in Time, and lose their abilities, and seldom that they improve, or grow young, or beautiful. The truth indeed is, Time always attends Motion. Now the natural effect of Motion is to put something, which now is, out of that state, in which it now is, and so far therefore to destroy that thate.

"The reverse of all this holds with THINGS THAT"

EXIST ETERNALLY. These exist not in Time, be
cause Time is so far from being able to measure their

Existence, that no Time can be assumed, which their

Existence doth not surfass. To which we may add,

that they feel none of its effects, being no way obnoxious

either to damage or dissolution.

"To instance in examples of either kind of Being."
There are such things at this instant, as Stonehenge and the Pyramids. It is likewise true at this instant, that the Diameter of the square is accommensurable with its side. What then shall we say? Was there

C.VIII. considered as denoting an ATTRIBUTE, has always reference to some Person, or SUBSTANCE. Thus if we say, Went, or, Go, or Whither goeth, or, Might have gone, we must add a Person or Substance, to make the Sentence complete. Cicero went; Cæsar might have gone; whither goeth the Wind? Go! Thou Traitar! But there is a Mode or Form, under which Verbs sometimes appear, where they have no reference at all to Persons or Substances. For example—To eat is pleasant;

[&]quot;ever a Time, when it was not incommensurable, as "it is certain there was a Time, when there was no "Stonehenge, or Pyramids? or is it daily growing less incommensurable, as we are assured of Decays in both "those massly Structures?" From these unchangeable. Truths, we may pass to their Place, or Region; to the unceasing Intellection of the universal Mind, ever perfect, ever full, knowing no remissions, languors, &c. See Nat. Ausc. L. IV. c. 19. Metaph. L. XIV. c. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. Edit. Du Val. and Vol. I. p. 262. Note VII. The following Passage may deserve Attention.

Τοῦ γὰς κοῦ ὁ μὰν ναῖν ατέφαιτη, ἢ μὰ νοῦν ὁ δὶ ἢ ανέφαιτ, ἢ καῖ. ἀλλὰ ἢ δυτος δυπω τέλισς, ὰν μὰ ακροσθές ἀυτῷ στ ἢ νοῦν ἀἰ, ἢ ακέντα νοῦν, ἢ μὰ ἀλλοτε ἄλλα. ῷςς οἱι ἄυ ἱντελές ανες ὁ τοῦν ἀὰ ἢ ανέντα, ἢ ἔμια. Μαχ. Τγτ. Diff. XVII. p. 201. Ēd. Lond.

but to fast is wholesome. Here the Verbs, To C.VIII. eat, and, To fast, stand alone by themselves, nor is it requisite or even practicable to prefix a Person or Substance. Hence the Latin and modern Grammarians have called Verbs under this Mode, from this their indefinite nature, Infinitives.

Sanctius has given them the name of Impersonals; and the Greeks that of 'Amapéupara, from the same reason of their not discovering either Person or Number.

THESE INFINITIVES go farther. They not only lay aside the character of Attributives, but they also assume that of Substantives, and as such themselves become distinguished with their several Attributes. Thus in the instance above, Pleasant is the Attribute, attending the Infinitive, To Eat; Wholesome the attribute attending the Infinitive, To Fast. Examples in Greek and Latin of like kind are innumerable.

Dulce & decorum est pro patria MORI. SCIRE tuum nibil estC.VIII.

'Ου κατθανεῖν γὰρ δεινὸν, ἀλλ' ἀισχρῶς 3ανεῖν (i).

THE Stoics in their grammatical inquiries had this Infinitive in such esteem, that they

(i) It is from the INFINITIVE thus participating the nature of a Noun or Substantive, that the best Grammarians have called it sometimes 'Ονομα ρηματικόν, A VERBAL NOUN; sometimes 'Ονομα ρήματος, THE VERB'S NOUN. The Reason of this Appellation is in Greek more evident, from its taking the prepositive Article before it in all cases; τὸ γράφειν, τῶ γράφειν, τῶ γράφειν, Τῶ γράφειν. The same construction is not unknown in English.

Thus Spencer,

For not to have been dipt in Lethe lake,
Could fave the Son of Thetis FROM TO DIE—

απο τῶ Θανεῖν. In like manner we fay, He did it, to be rich, where we must supply by an Ellipsis the Preposition, For. He did it, for to be rich, the same as if we had said, He did it for gain— ἔνεκα τῶ πλατεῖν, ἔνεκα τῶ κέρδες— in French, pour s'enricher. Even when we speak such Sentences, as the following, I choose το Philosophize, rather than το be rich, τὸ φιλοσοφεῖν βάλομαι, ἤπερ τὸ πλατεῖν, the Infinitives are in nature as much Accusatives, as if we were to say, I choose Philosophy rather than Riches, τὴν Φιλο-

they held this alone to be the genuine C.VIII. PHMA or VERB, a name, which they denied to all the other Modes. Their reasoning was, they considered the true verbal character to be contained fimple and unmixed in the Infinitive only. Thus the Infinitives, Tepimater, Ambulare, To walk, mean simply that energy, and nothing more. The other Modes, besides expressing this energy, superadd certain Affections, which respect persons and circumstances. Thus Ambulo and Ambula mean not fimply To walk, but mean, I walk, and, Walk Thou. Mз

And

φιλοσοφίαν βέλομαι, ήπερ τον ωλέτον. Thus toe Priscian, speaking of Infinitives-Currere enim est Cursus; & Scribere, Scriptura; & Legere, LECTIO. Itaque frequenter & Nominibus adjunguntur, & aliis casualibus, more Nominum; ut Persius,

Sed pukrum est digito monstrari, & dicier, bic est.

And soon after—Cum enim dice, BONUM EST LE-GERE, nibil aliud significo, nist, BONA EST LECTIO. L. XVIII. p. 1130. See also Apoll. L. I. c. 8. Gaza Gram. L. IV. Τὸ δὶ ἀπαρίμφατον, ὅνομά ἐςι ρήματος χ. τ. λ. 12

C.VIII. And hence they are all of them resolvable into the Infinitive, as their Prototype, together with some sentence or word, expressive of their proper Character. Ambulo, I walk; this is, Indico me ambulare, I declare myself to walk. Ambula, Walk Thou; that is, Impero te ambulare, I command thee to walk; and so with the Modes of every other species. Take away therefore the Assertion, the Command, or whatever else gives a Character to any one of these Modes, and there remains nothing more than THE

Verbum (k).

THE

MERE INFINITIVE, which (as Priscian says) significat ipsam rem, quam continet

⁽k) See Apollon. L. III. 13. Καθόλε ωᾶν παρηγμένον ἀπό τινος κ. τ. λ. See also Gaza, in the note before. Igitur a Constructione quoque Vim rei Verborum (id est, Nominis, quod signissicat ipsam rem) habere Infinitivum possimus dignoscere; res autem in Personas distributa saeit alios verbi motus.—Itaque omnes modi in hunc, id est; Infinitivum, transmuntur seve resolvuntur. Prise. L. XVIII. p. 1131. From these Principles Apollonius calls the Infinitive Pημα γενικώτατον, and Priscian, Verbum generale.

C.VIII.

THE application of this Infinitive is somewhat fingular. It naturally coalesces with all thoseVerbs, that denote any Tendence, Defire, or Volition of the Soul, but not readily with others. Thus it is sense as well as fyntax, to fay βέλομαι ζῆν, Cupio vivere, I desire to live; but not to say Έσθίω ζήν, Edo vivere, or even in English, I eat to live, unless by an Ellipsis, instead of I eat for to live; as we say ένεκα τε ζην, or pour vivre. The reafon is, that though different Actions may unite in the same Subject, and therefore be coupled together (as when we say, He walked and discoursed) yet the Actions notwithstanding remain separate and distinct. But it is not so with respect to Volitions, and Actions. Here the coalescence is often fo intimate, that the Volition is unintelligible, till the Action be exprest. Cupio, Volo, Desidero-I desire, I am willing, I want—What?—The fentences, we see, are defective and impersect.

M 4

C.VIII. We must help them then by Infinitives, which express the proper Actions to which they tend. Cupio legere, Volo discere, Defidero videre, I desire to read, I am willing to live, I want to see. Thus is the whole rendered complete, as well in sentiment, as in syntax (1).

AND so much for Modes, and their several Species. We are to attempt to denominate them according to their most eminent characters, it may be done in the following manner. As every necessary truth, and every demonstrative syllogism (which last is no more than a combination of such truths) must always be express under positive affertions, and as positive

⁽¹⁾ Priscian calls these Verbs, which naturally precede Infinitives, Verba Voluntativa; they are called in Greek Προαιρετικά. See L. XVIII. 1129. but more particularly see Apollonius, L. III. c. 13. where this whole doctrine is explained with great Accuracy. See also Macrobius de Diff. Verb. Gr. & Lat. p. 685. Ed. Var.

⁻Nec omne à a a c'emparor cuicunque Verbo, &c.

fitive affertions only belong to the Indi-C.VIII. cative, we may denominate it for that reafon the Mode of Science (m). Again, as the Potential is only conversant about Contingents, of which we cannot say with certainty that they will happen or not, we may call this Mode, THE Mode of Conjecture. Again, as those that are ignorant and would be informed, must ask of those that already know, this being the natural way of becoming Proficients; hence we may call the Interrogative, THE Mode of Proficiency.

Inter cuncta leges, & PERCONTABERE doctos,

Quâ ratione queas traducere leniter ævum, Quid purè tranquillet, &c. Hor.

Farther still, as the highest and most excellent use of the Requisitive Mode is legislative

⁽m) Ob nobilitatem præivit INDICATIVUS, solus Modus aptus Scientiis, solus Pater Veritatis. Scal. de Caus. L. Lat. c. 116.

C.VIII. gislative command, we may stile it for this reason the Mode of Legislature. Ad Divos adeunto caste, says Cicero in the character of a Roman law-giver; Be it therefore enacted, say the laws of England; and in the same Mode speak the laws of every It is also in this Mode other nation. that the geometrician, with the authority of a legislator, orders lines to be bisected, and circles described, as preparatives to that science, which he is about to establish.

> THERE are other supposed affections of Verbs, fuch as Number and Person. these surely cannot be called a part of their essence, nor indeed are they the effence of any other Attribute, being in fact the properties, not of Attributes, but The most that can be of Substances. faid, is, that Verbs in the more elegant languages are provided with certain terminations, which respect the Number and Person of every Substantive, that we may know

know with more precision, in a complex C.VIII. sentence, each particular substance, with its attendant verbal Attributes. The same may be said of Sex, with respect to Adjectives. They have terminations which vary, as they respect Beings male or semale, tho' Substances past dispute are alone susceptible of sex (n). We therefore pass over these matters, and all of like kind,

28

⁽n) It is somewhat extraordinary, that so acute and rational a Grammarian as Sanctius, should justly deny Genders, or the distinction of Sex to Adjectives, and yet make Persons appertain, not to Substantives, but to Verbs. His commentator Rerizonius is much more consistent. who says—At vero si rem recte consideres, ipsis Nominibus & Pronominibus vel maxime, imò unice inest ipsa Persona; & Verba se habent in Personarum ratione ad Nomina plane secuti Adjectiva in ratione Generum ad Substantiva, quibus. Salis autor (Sanctius scil. L. I. c. 7.) & relle Genus adscribit, exclusis Adjectivis. Sanct. Minerv. L. I. c. 12. There is indeed an exact Analogy between the Accidents of Sex and Person. There are but two Sexes, that is to fay, the Male and the Female; and but two Perfons (or Characters effential to discourse) that is to say, the Speaker, and the Party addressed. The third Sex and third Person are improperly so called, being in fact but Negations of the other two.

the effentials (0) of language, which effentials are the subject of our present inquiry. The principal of these now remaining is THE DIFFERENCE OF VERBS,

AS TO THEIR SEVERAL SPECIES, which we endeavour to explain in the following manner.

⁽o) Whoever would see more upon a subject of importance, referred to in many parts of this treatise, and particularly in note (b) of this chapter, may consult Letters concerning Mind, an Octavo Volume published 1750, the Author Mr. John Petvin, Vicar of Ilfington in Devon, a person who, though from his retired situation little known, was deeply skilled in the Philosophy both of the Antients and Moderns, and, more than this, was valued by all that knew him for his virtue and worth.

CHAP. IX.

Concerning the Species of Verbs, and their other remaining Properties.

A LL Verbs, that are strictly so called, Ch.IX. denote (a) Energies. Now as all Energies are Attributes, they have reference of course to certain energizing Substances. Thus it is impossible there should be such Energies, as To love, to sty, to wound, &c. if there were not such beings as Men, Birds, Swords, &c. Farther, every Energy doth not only require an Energizer, but is necessarily conversant about some Subject. For example, if we say, Brutus loves—we must needs supply—loves Cate, Cassus,

⁽a) We use this word ENERGY, rather than Motion, from its more comprehensive meaning; it being a sort of Genus, which includes within it both Motion and its Privation. See before, p. 94, 95.

Ch.IX. Cashus, Portia, or some one. The Sword wounds—i. e. wounds Hector, Sarpedon, Priam, or some one. And thus is it, that every Energy is necessarily situate between two Substantives, an Energizer which is active, and a Subject which is passive. Hence then, if the Energizer lead the sentence, the Energy follows its character, and becomes what we call A VERB ACTIVE.—Thus we say Brutus amat, Brutus loves. On the contrary, if the paffive Subject be principal, it follows the character of this too, and then becomes what we call A VERB PASSIVE.—Thus we fay, Portia amatur, Portia is loved. It is in like manner that the fame Road between the fummit and foot of the same mountain, with respect to the summit is Ascent, with respect to the foot is Descent. Since then every Energy respects an Energizer or a passive Subject; hence the Reaion why every Verb, whether active or passive, has in language a necessary reference

ference to some Noun for its Nominative Ch.IX. Gase (b).

But to proceed still farther from what has been already observed. Brutus loved Portia.—Here Brutus is the Energizer; loved, the Energy; and Portia, the Subject. But it might have been, Brutus loved Cato, or Cassius, or the Roman Republic; for the Energy is referable to Subjects infinite. Now among these infinite Subjects, when that happens to occur, which is the Energizer also, as when we say Brutus loved bimself, slew bimself, &c. in such Case the Energy hath to the same being a double Relation, both active and passive. And this it is which gave rise among

⁽b) The doctrine of Impersonal Verbs has been justly rejected by the best Grammarians, both antient and modern. See Sanci. Min. L. I. c. 12. L. III. c. 1. L. IV. c. 3. Priscian. L. XVIII. p. 1134. Apoll. L. III. sub fin. In which places the reader will see a proper Nominative supplied to all Verbs of this supposed Character.

HERMES.

Ch.IX. among the Greeks to that species of Verbs, called Verbs middle (c), and such was their true and original use, however in many instances they may have since happened to deviate. In other languages the Verb still retains its active Form, and the passive Subject (se or himself) is expressed like other accusatives.

AGAIN, in some Verbs it happens that the Energy always keeps within the Energizer, and never passes out to any foreign extraneous Subject. Thus when we say, Cæsar walketh, Cæsar sitteth, it is impossible

⁽c) Τὰ γὰρ καλέμενα μεσότητος χήματα συνέμπ
Ίωσιν ἀνεδέξατο ἐνεργετικής κὰ παθητικής διαθέσεως.

The Verbs, called Verbs middle, admit a Coincidence of the active and passive Character. Apollon. L. III. c. 7. He that would see this whole Doctrine concerning the power of THE MIDDLE VERB explained and confirmed with great Ingenuity and Learning, may consult a small Treatise of that able Critic Kuster, entitled, De vero Usu. Verborum Mediorum. A neat edition of this scarce piece has been lately published.

ble the Energy should pass out (as in the Ch.IX. case of those Verbs called by the Grammarians VERBS TRANSITIVE) because both the Energizer and the Passive Subjett are united in the same Person. what is the cause of this walking or sitting?-It is the Will and Vital Powers belonging to Casar. And what is the Subject, made so to move or to sit? It is the Body and Limbs belonging also to the same Casar. It is this then forms that species of Verbs, which grammarians have thought fit to call VERBS NEUTER, as if indeed they were void both of Action and Passion, when perhaps (like Verbs middle) they may be rather said to imply both. Not however to dispute about names, as these Neuters in their Energizer always discover their passive Subject (c), which other Verbs

⁽c) This Character of Neuters the Greeks very happily express by the Terms, 'Αυτοπάθεια and 'Ιδιοπάθεια, which Priscian renders, quæ ex se in seipså sit intrinsecus Posso. L. VIII. 790. Consentii Ars apud Putsch. p. 2051.

Ch.IX. Verbs cannot, their passive Subjects being infinite; hence the reason why it is as superfluous in these Neuters to have the Subject expressed, as in other Verbs it is necessary, and cannot be omitted. And thus it is that we are taught in common gram-

mats

It may be here observed, that even those Verbs, called Actives, can upon occasion lay aside their transitive character; that is to say, can drop their subsequent Accusative, and assume the Form of Neuters, so as to stand by themselves. This happens, when the Discourse respects the mere Energy or Assection only, and has no regard to the Subject, be it this thing or that. Thus we say, in the Subject, be it this thing or that. Thus we say, in speaking only of the Energy, in which we suppose him deficient. Had the Discourse been upon the Subjects of reading, we must have added them, in other advantages or Virgil, or Cicero, &c.

Thus Horace,

Qui CUPIT aut METUIT, juvat illum su domus

Ut lippum pić:æ tabulæ----

He that DESIRES or FEARS (not this thing in particular nor that, but in general he within whose breast these

Mars that Verbs Active require an Accu- Ch.1X. fative, while Neuters require none.

OF the above species of Verbs, the Middle cannot be called necessary, because most languages have done without it. The Species of Verbs therefore remaining are the Active, the Passive and the Neuter, and those seem essential to all languages whatever (d).

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these affections prevail) has the same joy in a House or Estate, as the Man with had Eyes has in sine Pictures. So Casar in his celebrated Laconic Epistle of, Veni, Vider, Where two Actives we see follow one Neuter in the same detached Form, as that Neuter itself. The Glory it seems was in the rapid Sequel of the Events. Conquest came as quick, as he could come himself, and look about him. Whom he saw, and whom he conquered, was not the thing, of which he boasted. See Apoll. L. III. c. 31. p. 279.

(d) The STOICS, in their logical view of Verbs, as making part in Propositions, considered them under the four following Sorts.

Ch.IX. THERE remains a remark or two farther, and then we quit the Subject of Verbs. It is true in general that the greater part of them denote Attributes of Energy

When a Verb, co-inciding with the Nominative of fome Noun, made without farther help a perfect affertive Sentence, as Σωμράτης ωεριπατεί, Socrates walketh; then as the Verb in such case implied the Power of a perfect Predicate, they called it for that reason Κατηγόρημα, a Predicable; or else, from its readiness συμ
Cάινειν, to co-incide with its Noun in completing the Sentence, they called it Σύμβαμα, a Co-incider.

When a Verb was able with a Noun to form a perfect affertive Sentence, yet could not affociate with such Noun, but under some oblique Case, as Σωκράτει μεταμέλει, Socratem pænitet: Such a Verb, from its near approach to just Co-incidence, and Predication, they called Παρασύμδαμα or Παρακατηγόρημα.

When a Verb, though regularly co-inciding with a Noun in its Nominative, fill required, to complete the Sentiment, fome other Noun under an oblique Cafe, as Πλάτων φιλει Δίωνα, Plato loveth Dio, (where without Dio or fome other, the Verb loveth would rest indefinite:)

Energy and Motion. But there are some Ch.IX. which appear to denote nothing more, than a nere simple Adjective, joined to an Assertion. Thus isake in Greek, and Equalleth in English, mean nothing more N 3 than

nite:) Such Verb, from this Defect, they called not a σύμβαμα, dx n κατηγόρημα, fomething less than a Coincider, or less than a Predicable.

Lastly, when a Verb required two Nouns in oblique Cases, to render the Sentiment complete; as when we say Σωκράτει 'Αλκιδιάδες μέλει, Tædet me Vitæ, or the like: Such Verb they called ἦτιον, or ἔλατιον ἢ wapa-σύμβαμα, or ἢ wapaxaτηγόρημα, something less than an impersect Co-incider, or an impersect Predicable.

These were the Appellations which they gave to Verbs, when employed along with Nouns to the forming of Propositions. As to the Name of PHMA, or VERB, they denied it to them all, giving it only to the Infinitive, as we have shewn already. See page 164. See also Ammon. in Lib. de Interpret. p. 37. Apollon. de Syntaxi, L. I. c. 8. L. III. c. 31. p. 279. c. 32. p. 295. Theod. Gaz. Gram. L. IV.

From the above Doctrine it appears, that all Verbs Neuter are Eumsamala; Verbs Ative, Arlora n sum-samala.

Ch.IX. than look èçi, is equal. So Albea in Latine is no more than albus sum.

- Campique ingentes ossibus albent. Virg.

The same may be said of Tumeo. Monstumet, i. e. tumidus est, is tumid. To express the Energy in these instances, we must have recourse to the Inceptives.

Fluctus uti primo cæpit cum ALBESCERE Vento. Virg.

Freta penti Incipiunt agitata TUMESCERE. Virg.

THERE are Verbs also to be found, which are formed out of Nouns. So that as in Abstract Nouns (such as Whiteness from White, Goodness from Good) as also in the Infinitive Modes of Verbs, the Attributive is converted into a Substantive; here the Substantive on the contrary is converted into an Attributive. Such are Kuulsan from when, to act the part of a Dog, or he a Cypic;

nic; Φιλιππίζειν from Φίλιππ, to Philip- Ch.IX. pize, or favour Philip; Syllaturire from Sylla, to meditate acting the fame part as Sylla did. Thus too the wife and virtuous Emperour, by way of counfel to himself— ορα μη ἀποκαισαρωθής, beware thou beeft not BECÆSAR'D; as though he said, Beware, that by being Emperor, thou dost not dwindle into A MERE CÆSAR (e). In like manner one of our own witty Poets,

STERNHOLD bimfelf be Out-Stern-HOLDED.

And long before him the facetious Fuller, speaking of one Morgan, a sanguinary Bishop in the Reign of Queen Mary, says of him, that he OUT-BONNER'D even BONNER bimself *.

And so much for that Species of Attributes, called Verbs in the strictest Sense.

N4 CHAP.

⁽e) Marc, Antonin. L. VI. § 30.

^{*} Church Hist. B, VIII, p. 21.

CHAP. X.

Concerning those other Attributives,

Participles and Adjectives.

HE nature of Verbs being understood, that of PARTICIPLES is no way difficult. Every complete Verb is expressive of an Attribute; of Time; and of an Affertion. Now if we take away the Affertion, and thus destroy the Verb, there-will remain the Attribute and the Time, which make the effence of a PAR-TICIPLE. Thus take away the Affertion from the Verb, ΓράΦει, Writeth, and there remains the Participle, ΓράΦων, Writing, which (without the Affertion) denotes the same Attribute, and the same Time. After the same manner, by withdrawing the Affertion, we discover Tpá Jas in Eypaψε, Γράψων in Γράψει, for we chuse to refer to the Greek, as being of all languages the

BOOK THE FIRST.

the most complete, as well in this respect, Ch. X. as in others.

And so much for Participles (a).

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(a) The Latins are defective in this Article of Participles. Their Active Verbs, ending in or, (commonly called Deponents) have Active Participles of all Times (such as Loquens, Locutus, Locuturus) but none of the Paffive. Their Actives ending in O, have Participles of the Present and Future (such as Scribens, and Scripturus) but none of the Past. On the contrary. their Paffives have Participles of the Paft (such as Scriptus) but none of the Present or Future, unless we admit fuch as Scribendus and Docendus for Futures, which Grammarians controvert. The want of these Participles they supply by a Periphrasis—for yeadas they say, cum scripsisset—for γεαφόμενος, dum scribitur, &c. In English we have sometimes recourse to the same Periphrasis: and sometimes we avail ourselves of the same Auxiliars, which form our Modes and Tenses.

The English Grammar lays down a good rule with respect to its Participles of the Past, that they all terminate in D, T, or N. This Analogy is perhaps liable to as few Exceptions, as any. Confidering therefore how little Analogy of any kind we have in our

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Ch. X. Energy, but whose mind is enriched with a larger portion of those powers. It is indeed no wonder, as all Attributives are homogeneous, that at times the several species should appear to interfere, and the difference between them be scarcely perceptible. Even in natural species, which are congenial and of kin, the specific difference is not always to be discerned, and in appearance at least they seem to run into each other.

> We have shewn already (b) in the Instances of Φιλιππίζειν, Syllaturire, 'Αποnaigapulinai, and others, how Substantives may be transformed into Verbal Attributives. We shall now shew, how they may be converted into Adjectives. When we say the party of Pompey, the stile of Cicero, the philosophy of Socrates,

> > in

⁽b) Sup. p. 182, 1834

in these gases the party, the stile, and the Ch. X. philosophy spoken of, receive a stamp and character from the persons, whom they respect. Those persons therefore perform the part of Attributes, that is, stamp and characterize their respective Subjects. Hence then they actually pass into Attributes, and assume, as such, the form of Adjectives. And thus it is we fay, the Pompeian party, the Ciceronian stile, and the Socratic philosophy. in like manner for a trumpet of Brass, we say, a brazen Trumpet; for a Crown of Gold, a golden Crown, &c. Even Pronominal Substantives admit the like muta-Thus instead of faying, the Book of Me, of Thee, and of Him, we say, My Book, Thy Book, and His Book; instead of faying the Country of Us, of You, and of Them, we say, Our Country, Your Country, and Their Country, which Words may be called fo many Pronominal Adjectives.

Ch. X.

IT has been observed already, and must needs be obvious to all, that Adjectives. as marking Attributes; can have no fex (c). And yet their having terminations conformable to the fex, number; and case of their Substantive, seems to have led grammarians into that strange absurdity of ranging them with Nouns; and separating them from Verbs, tho' with respect to these they are perfectly homogeneous; with respect to the others, enite contrary. They are homogeneous with respect to Verbs, as both sorts denote Attributes; they are heterogeneous with respect to Nouns, as never properly denoting Substances. But of this we have fpoken before (d).

THE

⁽c) Sup. p. 171:

⁽d) Sup. C. VI. Note (a). See also C. III. p. 28, &c.-

THE Attributives hitherto treated, Ch. X. that is to fay, VERBS, PARTICIPLES, and ADJECTIVES, may be called ATTRIBUTIVES OF THE FIRST ORDER. The reason of this name will be better understood, when we have more fully discussed ATTRIBUTIVES OF THE SECOND ORDER, to which we now proceed in the following chapter.

CHAP.

CHAP. XI.

Concerning Attributives of the second Order.

Ch.XI. A S the Attributives hitherto mentioned denote the Attributes of Substances, so there is an inferior class of them, which denote the Attributes only of Attributes.

To explain by examples in either kind—when we say, Cicero and Pliny were both of them eloquent; Statius and Virgil both of them wrote; in these instances the Attributives, eloquent, and wrote, are immediately referable to the substantives, Cicero, Virgil, &c. As therefore denoting THE ATTRIBUTIVES OF THE FIRST ORDER. But when we say, Pliny was moderately eloquent, but Cicero exceedingly eloquent; Statius wrote indifferently, but Virgil wrote admirably;

in these instances, the Attributives, Mo-Ch.XI. derately, Exceedingly, Indifferently, Admirably, are not referable to Substantives, but to other Attributives, that is, to the words, Eloquent, and Wrote. As therefore denoting Attributes of Attributes, we call them ATTRIBUTIVES OF THE SE-COND ORDER.

GRAMMARIANS have given them the Name of Ἐπιβρήματα, Adverbia, Adverbs. And indeed if we take the word Ῥῆμα, or, Verb, in its most comprehensive Signification, as including not only Verbs properly so called, but also Participles and Adjectives [an usage, which may be justified by the best authorities (a)] we shall find

⁽a) Thus Aristotle in his Treatise de Interpretatione, instances Ανθρωπος as a Noun, and Λεῦκος as a Verb. So Ammonius—κατὰ τῶτο τὸ σημαινόμενον, τὸ μὲν ΚΑΛΟΣ κὰ ΔΙΚΑΙΟΣ κὰ ὅσα τοιαῦτα— PHMATA λέγεσθαι κὰ ἐκ 'ONOMATA. According to this Signification (that is of denoting the Attributes of Substance O

Ch.XI. find the name, Exippua, or Adverb, to be a very just appellation, as denoting a Part of Speech, the natural Appendage of Verbs. So great is this dependence in Grammatical Syntax, that an Adverb can no more subsist without its Verb, than a Verb can subsist without its Substantive. It is the same here, as in certain natural Subjects. Every Colour for its existence as much requires a Superficies, as the Superficies for its existence requires a solid Body (b).

AMONG

and the Predicate in Propositions) the words, FAIR, JUST, and the like, are called VERBS, and not NOUNS. Am. in libr. de Interp. p. 37. b. Arist. de Interp. L. I. c. 1. See also of this Treatise, c. 6. Note (a) p. 87.

In the same manner the Stoics talked of the Participle. Nam PARTICIPIUM connumerantes Verbis, PARTICIPIALE VERBUM vocabant vel CASUALE. Priscian, L. I. p. 574.

(b) This notion of ranging the Adverb under the same Genus with the Verb (by calling them both Attributives) and of explaining it to be the Verb's Epithet or Adjective (by

Among the Attributes of Substance are Ch.XI. reckoned Quantities, and Qualities. Thus we say, a white Garment, a high Mountain.

Now some of these Quantities and Qualities are capable of Intension, and Remission. Thus we say, a Garment exceedingly white; a Mountain Tolerably O 2 high,

(by calling it the Attributive of an Attributive) is conformable to the best authorities. Theodore Gaza defines an Adverb, as follows—μέρος λόγε απίωτον, κατα ρήματος λεγόμενον, η έπιλεγόμενον ρήματι, κ) οίον A Part of Speech devoid of Cases, επίθετον ρήματος. predicated of a Verb, or subjoined to it, and being as it were the Verb's Adjective. L. IV. (where by the way we may observe, how properly the Adverb is made an Abtote, fince its principal sometimes has cases, as in Valde Sapiens; sometimes has none, as in Valde amat.) Pris. cian's definition of an Adverb is as follows-ADVER-BIUM est pars orationis indeclinabilis, cujus significatio Verbis adjicitur. Hoc enim perficit Adverbium Verbis additum, quod adjectiva nomina appellativis nominibus adjuncta; ut prudens homo; prudenter egit; felix Vir; feliciter vivit. L. XV. p. 1003. And before, speaking of the Stoics, he fays-Etiam ADVERBIA Nominibus vel VER-BIS CONNUMERABANT, & quafi ADJECTIVA VERBO-RUM nominabant. L. I. p. 574. See also Apoll. de Synt. L. I. c. 3. sub fin.

Ch.XI. bigh, or MODERATELY bigh. It is plain therefore that Intension and Remission are among the Attributes of such Attributes. Hence then one copious Source of secondary Attributives, or Adverbs, to denote these two, that is, Intension, and Remission. The Greeks have their θαυμαςῶς, μάλιςα, wάνυ, ἡκιςα; the Latins their valdè, vebementer, maximè, satis, mediocriter; the English their greatly, vastly, extremely, sufficiently, moderately, tolerably, indifferently, &c.

FARTHER than this, where there are different Intensions of the same Attribute, they may be compared together. Thus if the Garment A be EXCEEDINGLY White, and the Garment B be MODERATELY White, we may say, the Garment A is MORE white than the Garment B.

In these instances the Adverb More not only denotes Intension, but relative Intension. Nay we stop not here. We not

not only denote Intension merely relative Ch.XI. but relative Intension, than which there is none greater. Thus we not only say the Mountain A is more high than the Mountain B, but that it is the most high of all Mountains. Even Verbs, properly so called, as they admit simple Intensions, so they admit also these comparative ones. Thus in the following Example—Fame be LOVETH MORE than Riches, but Virtue of all things be LOVETH MOST—the Words MORE and MOST denote the different comparative Intensions of the Verbal Attributive, Loveth.

And hence the rise of Comparison, and of its different Degrees; which cannot well be more, than the two Species above mentioned, one to denote Simple Excess, and one to denote Superlative. Were we indeed to introduce more degrees than these, we ought perhaps to introduce infinite, which is absurd. For why stop at a limited Number, when in all subjects,

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Ch.XI. susceptible of Intension, the intermediate Excesses are in a manner infinite? There are infinite Degrees of more White, between the first Simple White, and the Superlative, Whitest; the same may be said of more Great, more Strong, more Minute, &c. The Doctrine of Grammarians about three such Degrees, which they call the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative, must needs be absurd; both because in their Positive there is: no Comparison at all, and because their Superlative is a Comparative, as much as their Comparative itself. Examples to evince this may be found every where. Socrates was the Most Wise of all the Athenians-Homer was the MOST SUBLIME of all Poets .-

> —Cadit et Ripheus, JUSTISSIMUS UNUS Qui fuit in Teucris— Virg.

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[†] Qui (scil. Gradus Positivis) quoniam persectus est, a quibusdam in numero Graduum non computatur. Confentii Ars apud Putsch. p. 2022.

It must be confessed these Compara-Ch.XI. tives, as well the simple, as the superlative, seem sometimes to part with their relative Nature, and only retain their intensive. Thus in the Degree, denoting simple Excess,

Tristior, et lacrymis oculos suffusa nitentes. Virg.

Rusticior paulo est— Hor.

In the Superlative this is more usual. Vir doctissimus, Vir fortissimus, a most learned Man, a most brave Man,—that is to say, not the bravest and most learned Man, that ever existed, but a Man possessing those Qualities in an eminent Degree.

THE Authors of Language have contrived a method to retrench these Comparative Adverbs, by expressing their force in the Primary Attributive. Thus instead of *More fair*, they say FAIRER; instead of *Most fair*, FAIREST, and the same OA holds

Ch.XI. holds true both in the Greek and Latin.

This Practice however has reached no farther than to Adjectives, or at least to Participles, sharing the nature of Adjectives. Verbs perhaps were thought too much diversified already, to admit more Variations without perplexity.

As there are some Attributives, which admit of Comparison, so there are others, which admit of none. Such for example are those, which denote that Quality of Bodies arifing from their Figure; as when we say, a Circular Table, a Quadrangular Court, a Conical Piece of Metal, &c. The reason is, that a million of things, participating the same Figure, participate it equally, if they participate it at all. To fay therefore that while A and B are both quadrangular, A is more or less quadrangular than B, is abfurd. The same holds true in all Attributives, denoting definite Quantities, whether continuous or discrete, whether abfolute or relative. Thus the two-foot Rule

A cannot be more a two-foot Rule, than any Ch.XI. other of the same length. Twenty Lions cannot be more twenty than twenty Flies. If A and B be both triple, or quadruple to C, they cannot be more triple, or more quadruple, one than the other. The reason of all this is, there can be no Comparison without Intension and Remission; there can be no Intension, and Remission in things always definite; and such are the Attributives, which we have last mentioned.

In the same reasoning we see the cause, why no Substantive is susceptible of these Comparative Degrees. A Mountain cannot be said MORE TO BE, OF TO EXIST, than a Mole-bill, but the More and Less must be sought for in their Quantities. In like manner when we refer many Individuals to one Species, the Lion A cannot be called more a Lion, than the Lion B, but if more any thing, he is more sierce, more speedy, or exceeding in some such Attribute. So again, in referring many Species

Ch.XI. Species to one Genus, a Crocodile is not more an Animal, than a Lizard; nor a Tiger, more than a Cat, but if any thing, they are more bulky, more strong, &c. the Excess, as before, being derived from their Attributes. So true is that saying of the acute Stagirite—that Substance is not susceptible of More and Less (c). But this by way of digression; to return to the subject of Adverbs.

Or the Adverbs, or secondary Attributives already mentioned, these denoting Intension or Remission may be called Adverbs of Quantity continuous; Once, Twice, Thrice, are Adverbs of Quantity discrete; More and Most, Less and Least, to which may be added Equally, Proportionally, &c.

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⁽c) εκ αν ἐπιδέχοιτο η ἐσία τὸ μαλλον κὰ τὸ ητίον, Categor. c. 5. See also Sanctius, L. I. c. 11. L. II. c. 10, 11. where the subject of Comparatives is treated in a very masterly and philosophical manner. See also Priscian, p. 598. Derivantur igitur Comparativa a Nominibus Adjectivis, &cc.

are Adverbs of Relation. There are Ch.XI. others of Quality, as when we say, Honestly industrious, Prudently brave, they fought Bravely, he painted finely, a Portico formed Circularly, a Plain cut Triangularly, &c.

And here it is worth while to observe, how the same thing, participating the same Essence, assumes different grammatical Forms from its different relations. For example, suppose it should be asked, how differ Honest, Honestly, and Honestly. The Answer is, they are in Essence the same, but they differ, in as much as Honestly, of a Verb; and Honestly, being divested of these its attributive Relations, assumes the Power of a Substantive, so as to stand by itself.

THE Adverbs, hitherto mentioned, are common to Verbs of every Species; but there

Ch.XI. there are some which are peculiar to Verbs properly so called, that is to say, to such as denote Motion or Energy, with their Privations. All Motion and Rest imply TIME and PLACE, as a kind of necessary Coincidents. Hence then, if we would express the Place or Time of either, we must needs have recourse to the proper. Adverbs; of Place, as when we say, be flood THERE; he went HENCE; he travelled FAR, &c.: of Time, as when we say, be food THEN; be went AFTERWARD; be travelled FORMERLY, &c. Should it be asked-why Adverbs of Time, when Verbs have Tenses? The Answer is, tho' Tenses may be sufficient to denote the greater Distinctions of Time, yet to denote them all by Tenses would be a perplexity without end. What a variety of Forms, to denote Yesterday, To-day, Tomorrow, Formerly, Lately, Just now, Now, Immediately, Presently, Soon, Hereafter, &c.? It was this then that made the

the Temporal Adverbs necessary, over and Ch.XI. above the Tenses.

To the Adverbs just mentioned may be added those, which denote the Intensions and Remissions peculiar to Motion, such as speedily, bastily, swiftly, slowly, &c. as also Adverbs of Place, made out of Prepositions, such as ἀνω and κάτω from ἀνὰ and κατὰ, in English upward and downward, from up and down. In some instances the Preposition suffers no change, but becomes an Adverb by nothing more than its Application, as when we say, circa equitat, be rides About; prope cecidit, be was NEAR falling; Verum ne post conferas culpam in me, But do not After lay the blame on me (d).

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⁽d) Sossp. Charisii Inst. Gram. p. 170. Terent. Eun. Act. II. Sc. 3.

Ch.XI. THERE are likewise Adverbs of Interrogation, such as Where, Whence, Whither, How; of which there is this remarkable, that when they lose their Interrogative power, they assume that of a
Relative, so as even to represent the
Relative or Subjunctive Pronoun. Thus
Ovid.

Et Seges est, UBI Troja fuit translated in our old English Ballad,

And Corn doth grow, WHERE Troy town flood.

That is to fay, Seges est in eo loco, IN QUO, &c. Corn groweth in that place, IN WHICH, &c. the power of the Relative, being implied in the Adverb. Thus Terence,

Hujusmodi mibi res semper comminiscere, UBI me excarnusices— Heaut. IV. 6.

where UBI relates to res, and stands for quibus rebus.

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It is in like manner that the Relative Ch.XI. Pronoun upon occasion becomes an Interrogative, at least in Latin and English.
Thus Horace,

Quem Virum aut Heroa lyrâ, vel acri Tibiâ fumes celebrare, Clio?

So Milton,

Who first seduc'd them to that foul re-

The reason of all this is as sollows. The Pronoun and Adverbs here mentioned are all alike, in their original character, Relatives. Even when they become Interrogatives, they lose not this character, but are still Relatives, as much as ever. The difference is, that without an Interrogation, they have reference to a Subject, which is antecedent, definite, and known; with an Interrogation, to a Subject which is subsequent, indefinite, and unknown,

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Ch.XI. known, and which it is expected that the Answer should express and ascertain,

WHO first seduc'd them?

The very Question itself supposes a Seducer, to which, tho' unknown, the Pronoun, Who, has a reference.

Tb' infernal Serpent-

Here in the Answer we have the Subject, which was indefinite, ascertained; so that the Who in the Interrogation is (we see) as much a Relative, as if it had been said originally, without any Interrogation at all, It was the Infernal SERPENT, WHO first seduced them.

And thus is it that *Interrogatives* and *Relatives* mutually pass into each other.

And so much for Advers, peculiar to Verbs properly so called. We have already spoken of those, which are common to all Attributives. We have likewise attempted

tempted to explain their general Nature, Ch.XI. which we have found to confift in being ! the Attributes of Attributes. There remains only to add, that Adverss may be derived from almost every Part of Speech: from PREPOSITIONS, as when from After we derive Afterwards—from PARTICI-PLES, and through these from Verbs, as when from Know we derive Knowing, and thence Knowingly; from Scio, Sciens, and thence Scienter—from ADJECTIVES, as when from Virtuous and Vicious, we derive Virtuously and Viciously-from Sub-STANTIVES, as when from Hibyne, an Ape, we derive Πιθήκειον βλέπειν, to look APISHLY; from Λέων, a Lion, Λεοντωδως, Leoninely - nay even from PROPER NAMES, as when from Socrates and Demosthenes, we derive Socratically and Demosthenically. It was Socratically reasoned, we fay; it was Demosthenically spoken *. Of

Ch.XI. Of the same sort are many others, eited by the old Grammarians, such as Catiliniter from Catilina, Sisenniter from Sisenna, Tulliane from Tullius, &c. (e).

Nor are they thus extensive only in Derivation, but in Signification also. Theodore
Gaza in his Grammar informs us (f),
that Adverbs may be found in every
one of the Predicaments, and that the
readiest way to reduce their Infinitude,
was to refer them by classes to those ten
universal Genera. The Stoics too called
the Adverb by the name of Handenty,
and that from a view to the same multiform Nature. Omnia in se capit quasi collata per satiram, concessa sibi rerum varia
potestate. It is thus that Sosipater explains
the

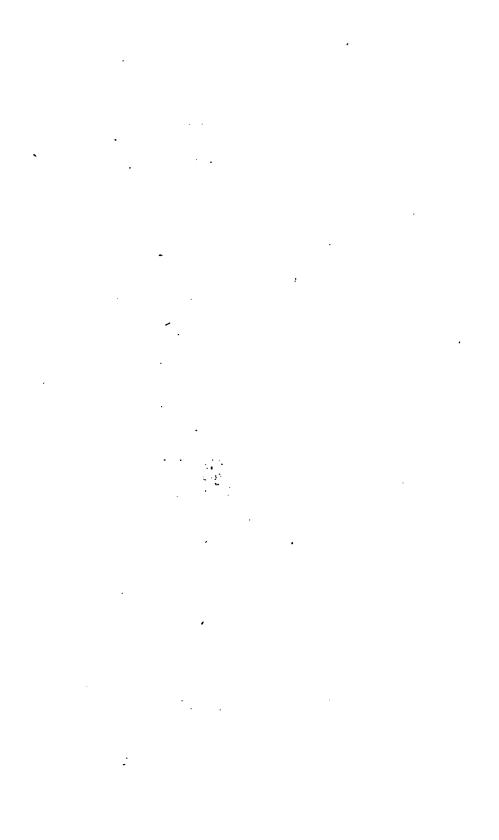
⁽e) See Prisc. L. XV. p. 1022. Sos. Charis. 161. Edit. Pusschii.

⁽f) — διδ δη κ) άμεινον ἴσως δίκα κ) των ἐπιρρημάτων γίνη Θίσθαι ἐκεῖνα, ἐσίαν, wοιὸν, wοσὸν, wρός τι, κ. τ. λ. Gram. Introd. L. II.

the Word (g), from whose authority Ch.XI. we know it to be Stoical. But of this enough.

AND now having finished these PRIN-CIPAL PARTS of Speech, the SUBSTAN-TIVE and the ATTRIBUTIVE, which are SIGNIFICANT WHEN ALONE, we proceed to those AUXILIARY PARTS, which are ONLY SIGNIFICANT, WHEN ASSO-CIATED. But as these make the Subject of a Book by themselves, we here conclude the first Book of this Treatise.

⁽g) Sosip. Char.- p. 175. Edit. Putschii.



HERMES.

OR A PHILOSOPHICAL INQUIRY CONCERNING UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR

BOOK II

CHAPI.

Concerning Definitives.

HAT remains of our Work, is a matter of less difficulty, it being the same here, as in some Historical Picture; when the principal Figures are once formed, it is an easy labour to design the rest.

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Ch. I. DEFINITIVES, the Subject of the prefent Chapter, are commonly called by
Grammarians, ARTICLES, ARTICULI,
"Apopa. They are of two kinds, either
those properly and strictly so called, or else
the Pronominal Articles, such as This,
That, Any, &c.

We shall first treat of those Articles more strictly so denominated, the reason and use of which may be explained, as follows.

THE visible and individual Substances of Nature are infinitely more numerous, than for each to admit of a particular Name. To supply this defect, when any Individual occurs, which either wants a proper Name, or whose proper Name is not known, we ascertain it, as well as we can, by referring it to its Species; or, if the Species be unknown, then at least

least to some Genus. For example—a Ch.I. certain Object occurs, with a head and limbs, and appearing to posses the powers of Self-motion and Sensation. If we know it not as an Individual, we refer it to its proper Species, and call it Dog, or Horse, or Lion, or the like. If none of these Names sit, we go to the Genus, and call it, Animal.

But this is not enough. The Thing, at which we are looking, is neither a Species, nor a Genus. What is it then? An Individual.—Of what kind? Known, or unknown? Seen now for the first time, or seen before, and now remembered?—It is here we shall discover the use of the two Articles (A) and (The). (A) respects our primary Perception, and denotes Individuals as unknown; (The) respects our secondary Perception, and denotes Individuals as known. To explain by an example—I see an object pass

Ch.I. by, which I never saw till now. What do I say?—There goes A Beggar with A long Beard. The Man departs, and returns a Week after. What do I say then?—There goes THE Beggar with THE long Beard. The Article only is changed, the rest remains unaltered.

YET mark the force of this apparently minute Change. The Individual, once vague, is now recognized as fomething known, and that merely by the efficacy of this latter Article, which tacitly infinuates a kind of previous acquaintance, by referring the present Perception to a like Perception already past (a).

THE Truth is, the Articles (A) and (THE) are both of them definitives, as they circumscribe the latitude of Genera and Species, by reducing them for the most

⁽a) See B. I. c. 5. p. 63, 64.

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most part to denote Individuals. The Chil. difference however between them is this; the Article (A) leaves the Individual itself unascertained, whereas the Article (THE) ascertains the Individual also, and is for that reason the more accurate Definitive of the two.

IT is perhaps owing to the imperfect manner, in which the Article (A) defines, that the Greeks have no Article correspondent to it, but supply its place, by a negation of their Article, O. O ανθρωπω ἐπεσεν, The man fell— ἀνθρωπω ἐπεσεν, A Man fell, without any thing prefixed, but only the Article withdrawn (b). Even in English, where the Article

⁽b) Τὰ γὰρ ἀοριςωδῶς ωότε νούμενα, ἡ τἔ ἄρθρε ωαράθεσις ὑπὸ ὁρισμὸν τἔ ωροσώπε ἄγει. Those things, which are at times understood indefinitely, the addition of the Article makes to be definite as to their Person. Apoll. L.IV. c. 1. See of the same author, L. I. c. 6, 36.

Ch.I. Afticle (A) cannot be used, as in plus rals, its force is exprest by the same Negation. Those are The Men, means those are Individuals, of which we possess some previous Knowledge. Those are Men, the Article apart, means no more than that they are so many vague and uncertain Individuals, just as the Phrase, A Man, in the singular, implies one of the same number.

Bur

τε εν τη συντάξει ο ιον ει μεν λέγοι τις, ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΣ ΗΚΕ, άδηλον τίνα άνθρωπον λέγει. ει δε Ο ΑΝ-ΘΡΩΠΟΣ, δηλον, προεγνωσμένου γὰρ τινα άνθρωπον λέγει. Τετο δε άυτο βέλονται κε δι φάσκοντες τ' άρθρον σημαντικον πρώτης γνώσεως κε δευτέρας. The Article causes a Review within the Mind of something known before the texture of the Discourse. Thus if any one says "Ανθρωπώ" ηκε, ΜΑΝ CAME (which is the same, as when we say in English A man came) it is not evident, of whom he speaks. But if he says δ άνθρωπώ" ηκε, ΤΗΕ ΜΑΝ CAME, then it is evident; for he speaks of some Person known before. And this is what those mean, who say that the Article is expressive of the First and Secend Knowledge together. Theod. Gazæ, L. IV.

But the Greeks have no Article Ch. I. correspondent to the Article (A,) yet nothing can be more nearly related, than their O, to the Article, The. O Basiless, The King; TO dupon, The Gift, &c. Nor is this only to be proved by parallel examples, but by the Attributes of the Greek Article, as they are described by Apollonius, one of the earliest and most acute of the old Grammarians, now remaining.

Έςιν εν καθὸ κὶ ἐν ἀλλοις ἀπεφηνάμεθα,
ἴδιον ἀρθρων ἡ ἀναφορὰ, ἥ ἐςι προκατειλεγμένε προσώπε παραςατική.—Now the peculiar Attribute of the Article, as we have
shewn elsewhere, is that Reference, which
implies some certain Person already mentioned. 'Again—'Ου γὰρ δήγε τὰ ὀνόματα
ἐξ ἀμτῶν ἀναφορὰν παρίςησιν, εἰ μὴ συμπαραλάζοιεν τὸ ἄρθρον', εἰ ἐξαίρετός ἐςιν ἡ ἀναφορά. For Nouns of themselves imply not

Re-

Ch.I. Reference, unless they take to them the Article, whose peculiar Character is Reference.

Again—Τὸ ἄρθρον ωροϋΦεςῶσαν γνῶσιν δηλοι

—The Article indicates a pre-established acquaintance (c).

His reasoning upon Proper Names is worth remarking. Proper Names (he tells us) often fall into Homonymie, that is, different Persons often go by the same Name. To solve this ambiguity, we have recourse to Adjectives or Epithets. For example—there were two Grecian chiefs, who bore the name of Ajax. It was not therefore without reason, that Minestheus uses Epithets, when this intent was to distinguish the one of them from the other.

Άλλὰ

⁽c) Apoll. de Synt. L. I. c. 6, 7. His account of REFERENCE is as follows—Idiuma avagopas wpoxutely paire to poo with device a prioris. The peculiar character of Reference is the second or repeated Knowledge of some Person already mentioned. L. II. c. 3.

'Αλλά τερ οίο τω Τελαμώνιο άλκιμο Cl Αίας. Hom,

If both Ajaxes (says he) cannot be spared,
——at least alone
Let mighty Telamonian Ajax come.

Apollonius proceeds—Even Epithets themselves are diffused thro' various Subjects, in as much as the same Adjective may be referred to many Substantives.

In order therefore to render both Parts of Speech equally definite, that is to fay the Adjective as well as the Substantive, the Adjective itself assumes an Article before it, that it may indicate a Reference to some single Person only, μουαδική αναφορά, according to the Author's own Phrase. And thus it is we say, Τρύφων ὁ Γραμματίνιὸς, Trypho the Grammarian; Απολλόνος, Τρομοναίω, Αpollodorus the Cyrenean, &c. The Author's Conclusion of this

Ch.I. this Section is worth remarking. Δεόντως άρα κ) κατὰ τὸ τοιῦτον ἡ πρόσθεσίς ἐςι
τῦ άρθρω, συνιδιάζωσα τὸ ἐπιθετικὸν τῷ κυρίῳ
ὀνόματι—It is with reason therefore that
the Article is here also added, as it brings
the Adjective to an Individuality, as precise,
as the proper Name (d).

We may carry this reasoning farther, and shew, how by help of the Article even common Appellatives come to have the force of proper Names, and that unaffisted by epithets of any kinds. Among the Athenians Πλοΐον meant Ship; "Ενδεκα, Eleven; and "Ανθρωπω, Man. Yet add but the Article, and Το Πλοΐον, The Ship, meant that particular Ship, which they sent annually to Delos; 'O, 'Eνδεκα, The Eleven, meant certain Officers of Justice; and 'O 'Ανθρωπω, The MAN, meant their public Executioner. So in English, City, is a Name

⁽d) See Apoll. L. I. c. 12. where by mistake Mene-lous is put for Manestheus.

Name common to many places; and Speaker, a Name common to many Men. Yet if we prefix the Article, THE CITY means our Metropolis; and THE SPEAK, ER, a high Officer in the British Parliament.

AND thus it is by an easy transition, that the Article, from denoting Reference, comes to denote Eminence also; that is to say, from implying an ordinary pre-acquaintance, to presume a kind of general and universal Notoriety. Thus among the Greeks O Homeriety, the Poet, meant Homer (e); and O Stayespithe, the stagistic, meant Aristotle; not that there

⁽e) There are so sew exceptions to this Observation, that we may fairly admit it to be generally true. Yet Aristotle twice denotes Euripides by the Phrase & worship, once at the end of the seventh Book of his Nicomachian Ethics, and again in his Physics, L. II. 2. Plate also in his tenth Book of Laws (p. 901. Edit. Serr.) denotes Hessed after the same manner.

Ch. I. were not many Poets, beside Homer; and many Stagirites, beside Aristotle; but none equally illustrious for their Poetry and Philosophy,

> IT is on a like principle that Aristotle tells us, it is by no means the fame thing to affert—είναι την ήδουην αγαθών, οτ, ΤΟ avadov - that, Pleasure is A Good, or, THE GOOD, The first only makes it a common Object of Desire, upon a level with many others, which daily raise our wishes; the last supposes it that fur preme and sovereign Good, the ultimate Scope of all our Actions and Endean vours (f).

But to pursue our Subject. It has been faid already that the Article has no meaning, but when affociated to some other word.—To what words then may it be affociated?—To fuch as require defining,

for

⁽f) Analyt. Prior. L. I. c. 40.

for it is by nature a Definitive.—And Ch. I. what Words are these?—Not those which already are as definite, as may be. Nor yet those, which, being indefinite, cannot properly be made otherwise. It remains then they must be those, which though indefinite, are yet capable, through the Article, of becoming definite.

Upon these Principles we see the reason, why it is absurd to say, $O E \Gamma \Omega$, The I, or $O \Sigma \Upsilon$, The Thou, because nothing can make those Pronouns more definite, than they are (g). The same may be afferted

⁽g) Apollonius makes it part of the Pronoun's Definition, to refuse co-alescence with the Article. Ἐκεῖνο ἐν ἀντωνυμία, τὸ μετὰ δείξεως ἢ ἀναφορᾶς ἀντονομα-ζόμενον, ῷ ἐ σῦνες ι τὸ ἄρθρον. That therefore is a Pronoun, which with Indication or Reference is put for a Noun, and WITH WHICH THE ARTICLE DOTH NOT ASSOCIATE. L. II. c. 5. So Gaza, speaking of Pronouns—Πάνλη δὲ—ἐκ ἐπιδέχουλαι ἄρθρον. L. IV. Priscian says the same. Jure igitur apud Gracos prima

Ch. I. of Proper Names, and though the Greeks fay ὁ Σωκράτης, ἡ Εάνθιππη, and the like, yet the Article is a mere Pleonasm, unless perhaps it serve to distinguish Sexes. By the same rule we cannot say in Greek OI ΑΜΦΟΤΕΡΟΙ, or in English, The Both, because these Words in their own nature are each of them perfectly defined, so that to define them farther would be quite superfluous. Thus, if it be said, I have read Both Poets, this plainly indicates a definite pair, of whom some mention has been made already; Δυὰς ἐγνωσμένη, a known Duad, as Apollonius expresses him-

of

felf, (b) when he speaks of this Subject. On the contrary, if it be said, I have read Two Poets, this may mean any Pair out

et secunda persona pronominum, quæ sine dubio demonstrativæ sunt, articulis adjungi non possunt; nec tertia, quendo demonstrativa est. L. XII. p. 938.—In the beginning of the same Book, he gives the true reason of this. Supra omnes alias partes orationis FINIT PERSONAS PRONOMEN.

⁽b) Apollan. L.I. c. 16.

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of all that ever existed. And hence this Ch. I. Numeral, being in this Sense indefinite (as indeed are all others, as well as itself) is forced to assume the Article, whenever it would become definite *. And thus it is, THE Two in English, and or aro in Greek, mean nearly the same thing, as BOTH OF AMOOTEPOL Hence also it is, that as Two, when taken alone, has reference to some primary and indefinite Perception, while the Article, THE, has reference to some fecondary and definite +; hence I say the Reason, why it is bad Greek to say ato of anoponoi, and bad English, to say Two THE MEN. Such Syntax is in fact a Blending of Incom-· patibles,

This explains Servius on the XIIth Æneid. v. 511. where he tells us that Duorum is put for Amborum. In English or Greek the Article would have done the business, for the Two, or τοῦν δυοῦν are equivalent to Both or ἀμφοθέρων, but not so Duorum, because the Latins have no Articles to prefix.

⁺ Sup. p. 215, 216.

Ch. I. patibles, that is to say of a defined Substantive with an undefined Attributive. the contrary to say in Greek AMPOTEPOI OI ANΘΡΩΠΟΙ, or in English, BOTH THE MEN, is good and allowable, because the Substantive cannot possibly be less apt, by being defined, to coalesce with an Attributive, which is defined as well as itself. So likewise, it is correct to say, OI ATO ANOPONOI, THE TWO MEN, because here the Article, being placed in the beginning, extends its Power as well through Substantive as Attributive, and equally contributes to define them both.

> As some of the words above admit of no Article, because they are by Nature as definite as may be, so there are others, which admit it not, because they are not to be defined at all. Of this fort are all INTERROGATIVES. If we question about Substances, we cannot say o TIE or-TOΣ, THE WHO IS THIS; but TIE ΟΥΤΟΣ,

OTTOE, WHO IS THIS? (i). The same Ch. I. as to Qualities and both kinds of Quantity.

We say without an Article HOIOE, NOEOI, HHAIKOE, in English, WHAT
SORT OF, HOW MANY, HOW GREAT.

The Reason is, that the Articles o, and
THE, respect Beings, already known; Interrogatives respect Beings, about which
we are ignorant; for as to what we know,
Interrogation is superfluous.

In a word the natural Associators with Articles are all those common Appellatives, which denote the several Genera and Species of Beings. It is these, which, by assuming a different Article, serve either to explain an Individual upon its first being perceived, or else to indicate, upon its return, a Recognition, or repeated Knowledge (k).

(i) Apollonius calls ΤΙΣ, ἐνανδιώτατον τῶν ἄρθρων, a Part of Speech, most contrary, most averse to Articles, . L. IV. c. 1.

 $\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{E}}$

⁽k) What is here faid respects the two Articles which we have in English. In Greek, the Article does no interpretable than imply a Recognition. See before p. 210, 211, 216.

Ch. I. We shall here subjoin a few Instances of the Peculiar Power of ARTICLES.

Every Proposition consists of a Subjest, and a Predicate. In English these are distinguished by their Position, the Subject standing first, the Predicate last. Happinels is Pleasure—Here, Happinels is the Subject; Pleasure, the Predicate: we change their order, and fay, Pleasure is Hafpiness; then Pleasure becomes the Subject, and Happiness the Predicate. Greek these are distinguished not by any Order or Position, but by help of the. Article, which the Subject always affumes, and the Predicate in most instances (some few excepted) rejects. piness is Pleasure—ndovn n eudaspovia-Pleasure is Happiness-n noon evolution Fine things are difficult—χαλεπά τὰ καλά -Difficult things are fine - Tà xelvena καλά.

In Greek it is worth attending, how in Ch.I. the same Sentence, the same Article, by being prefixed to a different Word, quite changes the whole meaning. For example-'Ο Πτολεμαιώ γυμνασιαρχήσας έτιμήθη -Ptolemy, baving prefided over the Games, was publickly bonoured. The Participle youvagiapyingas has here no other force. than to denote to us the Time, when Ptolemy was honoured, viz. after having prefided over the Games. But if, instead of the Substantive, we join the Participle to the Article, and fay, 'Ο γυμνασιαρχήσας Πτολεμαι ετιμήθη, our meaning is then-The Ptolemy, who prefided over the Games, was bonoured. The Participle in this case, being joined to the Article, tends tacitly to indicate not one Ptolemy but many, of which number a particular one participated of honour (1).

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In

⁽¹⁾ Apollon. L. L c, 33, 34.

Ch.I.

IN English likewise it deserves remarking, how the Sense is changed by changing of the Articles, tho' we leave every other Word of the Sentence untouched.— And Nathan faid unto David, THOU ART THE MAN *. In that fingle THE, that diminutive Particle, all the force and efficacy of the Reason is contained. By that alone are the Premises applied, and so firmly fixed, as never to be shaken. possible this Affertion may appear at first fomewhat strange; but let him, who doubts it, only change the Article, and then see what will become of the Prophet and his reasoning.—And Nathan said unto David, Thou ART A MAN. Might not the King well have demanded upon fo impertinent a position,

Non dices bodie, quorfum bæc tam putida tendant?

Вит

^{*} ΣΥ ΕΙ Ό ΑΝΗΡ. Βασιλ. Β΄. κεφ, ιδ΄.

٧.

But enough of such Speculations. The only remark, which we shall make on them, is this; that "minute Change in PRINCIPLES leads to mighty Change in "Effects; so that well are PRINCIPLES "intitled to our regard, however in ap-

" pearance they may be trivial and low."

THE ARTICLES already mentioned are those firitly so called; but besides these there are the Pronominal Articles, such as, This, That, Any, Other, Some, All, No, or None, &c. Of these we have spoken already in our Chapter of Pronouns (m), where

⁽m) See B. I. c. 5. p. 72, 73. It seems to have been some view of words, like that here given, which induced Quintilian to say of the Latin Tongue—Noster sermo Articulos non desiderat; ideoque in alias partes orationis sparguntur. Inst. Orat. L. I. c. 4. So Scaliger. His declaratis, satis constat Gracorum Articulos non neglectos a nobis, sed eorum usum superstuum. Nam ubi aliquid prascribendum est, quod Graci per articulum efficiunt (ilego ò dulos) expletur a Latinis per Is aut Ille; Is,

where we have shewn, when they may be taken as Pronouns, and when as Articles. Yet in truth it must be confessed, if the Essence of an Article be to define and ascertain, they are much more properly Articles, than any thing else, and as such should be confidered in Universal Grammar. Thus when we say, This Picture I approve, but THAT I dislike, what do we perform by the help of these Definitives, but bring down the common Appellative to denote two Individuals, the one as the more near, the other as the more distant? So when we say, Some men are virtuous, but ALL men are mortal, what is the natural Effect. of this ALL and Some, but to define that Universality, and Particularity, which would remain indefinite, were we to take

eut, Ille servus dixit, de quo servo antea sacta mentio sit, aut qui alio quo pacto notus sit. Additur enim Articulus ed rei memoriam renovandam, cujus antea non nescii sumus, aut ad præscribendam intellectionem, quæ latius patere queat; veluti cum dicimus, C. Cæsar, Is qui postea dictator suit. Nam alii suere C. Cæsares. Sic Græcè καισκρό ο ἀντοκράτωρ. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 131.

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them away? The same is evident in such Ch. I. Sentences, as — Some substances bave fensation; others want it-Chuse ANY way of acting, and SOME men will find fault. For here some, other, and any, ferve all of them to define different Parts of a given Whole; Some, to denote a definite Part; Any, to denote an indefinite; and OTHER, to denote the remaining Part, when a Part has been affumed already. Sometimes this last Word denotes a large indefinite-Portion, set in opposition to some fingle, definite, and remaining. Part, which receives from such Opposition no small degree of heighten-Thus Virgil, ing.

Excudent ALII spirantia molliùs æra; (Credo equidem) vivos ducent de marmore vultus;

Orabunt causas meliùs, cælique meatus

Describent radio, et surgentia sidera

dicent:

Tu regere imperio populos, Romana, memento, & ... Æn. VI.

Nothing

HERMES.

Ch, i. Nothing can be stronger or more sublime, than this Antithesis; one Act set as equal to many other Acts taken together, and the Roman singly (for it is Tu Romane, not Vos Romani) to all other Men; and yet this performed by so trivial a cause, as the just opposition of Alli to Tu.

But here we conclude, and proceed to freat of Connectives.

CHAP. II.

Concerning Connectives, and first those called Conjunctions.

Connectives are the subject of what Ch. II. follows; which, according as they connect either Sentences or Words, are called by the different Names of Conjunctions, or Prepositions. Of these Names, that of the Preposition is taken from a mere accident, as it commonly stands in connection before the Part, which it connects. The name of the Conjunction, as is evident, has reference to its essential character.

Of these two we shall consider the Conjunction sirst, because it connects, not Words, but Sentences. This is conformable to the Analysis, with which we began this inquiry *, and which led us, by parity

^{*} Sup. p. 11, 12.

HERMES.

Ch. II. parity of reason, to consider Sentences themselves before Words. Now the Definition of a Conjunction is as follows—a Part of Speech, void of Signification itself, but so formed as to belp Signification, by making two or more significant Sentences to be one significant Sentence (a).

THIS

⁽a) Grammarians have usually considered the Conjunction as connecting rather single Parts of Speech, than subole Sentences, and that too with the addition of like . with like, Tense with Tense, Number with Number, Case with Case, &c. This Sanctius justly explodes. Conjunctio neque casus, neque alias partes orationis (ut imperiti docent) conjungit, ipfæ enim partes inter se conjunguntur-fed conjunctio Orationes inter se conjungit. Miner. L. III. c. 14. He then establishes his doctrine by a variety of examples. He had already faid as much, L. I. c. 18. and in this he appears to have followed Scaliger, who had afferted the same before him. junctionis autem notionem veteres paullo inconsultius prodidere; neque enim, quod aiunt, partes alias conjungit (ipfa enim partes per se inter se conjunguatur)-sed Conjunctio of, quæ conjungit Orationes plures. De Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 165.

This therefore being the general Idea of Ch. II. Conjunctions, we deduce their Species

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This Doctrine of theirs is confirmed by Apollonius, who in the feveral places, where he mentions the Conjunction, always confiders it in Syntax as connecting Sentences, and not Words, though in his works now extant he has not given us its Definition. See L. I. c. 2. p. 14. L. II. c. 15. p. 234.

But we have stronger authority than this to support Scaliger and Santitius, and that is Aristotle's Definition, as the Passage has been corrected by the best Critics and Manuscripts. A Conjunction, according to him, is φωνή ασημος, έκ πλειόνων μέν φωνών μιας, σημανίικών δε, σοιείν σεφυκυία μίαν φωνήν σημανίικήν. culate Sound, devoid of Signification, which is so formed as to make ONE fignificant articulate Sound out of several articulate Sounds, which are each of them significant. Poet. c. 20. In this view of things, the one significant articulate Sound, formed by the Conjunction, is not the Union of two or more Syllables in one fimple Word, nor even of two or more Words in one simple Sentence, but of two or more simple Sentences in one complex Sentence, which is confidered as ONE, from that Concatenation of Meaning effected by the Conjunctions. For example, let us take the Sentence, which follows. are by nature focial, it is their Interest to be just, though it were

Ch. II. in the following manner. Conjunctions, while they connect sentences, either connect alfo

were not so ordained by the Laws of their Country. (1.) Men are by nature social. are three Sentences. (2.) It is Man's Interest to be just. (3.) It is not ordained by the Laws-of every Country that Man should be just. The first two of these Sentences are made One by the Conjunction, IF; these, One with the third Sentence, by the Conjunction, THO'; and the three, thus united, make that φωνη μία σημανίικη, that one significant articulate Sound, of which Aristotle speaks, and which is the refult of the conjunctive Power.

This explains a passage in his Rhetoric, where he mentions the same Subject. Ο γαρ σύνδεσμος εν woisi τὸ Τολλά Τε έαν έξαιρεθη, δηλον ότι τυμαντίον ές αι The Conjunction makes many, ONE; fo τὸ ἐν σολλά. that if it be taken away, it is then evident on the contrary that one will be MANY. Rhet. III. c. 12. His instance of a Sentence, divested of its Conjunctions, and thus made many out of one, is, ηλθον, απήνησα, εδεόμην, veni, occurri, rogavi, where by the way the three Sentences, resulting from this Dissolution, (for Tablov. απήνησα, and έδεόμην, are each of them, when unconnected, so many perfect Sentences) prove that these are the proper Subjects of the Conjunction's connective faculty.

Ammonius's

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also their meanings, or not. For example: let us take these two Sentences—
Rome was enslaved—Cæsar was ambitious—and connect them together by the Conjunction, Because. Rome was enslaved,
Because Cæsar was ambitious. Here the
Meanings, as well as the Sentences, appear to be connected. But if I say,—Manners
must be reformed, or Liberty will be lost—
here the Conjunction, or, though it join
the

Anmonius's account of the use of this Part of Speech is elegant. Διὸ κὸ τῶν λόγων ὁ μὲν ὕπαρξιν μίαν σημάινων, ὁ κυρίως εἶς, ἀνάλογ، ౘν ἔιη τῷ μηδέπω τετμημένω ξύλω, κὸ διὰ τἔτο ἐνὶ λεγομένω ὁ δὲ ωλείονας ὑπάρξεις δηλῶν, ἔνα (lege διὰ) τινὰ δὲ σύνδεσμον ἡνῶσθάι ως δοκῶν, ἀναλογεῖ τῆ νηὶ τῆ ἐκ ωολλῶν συγκειμένη ξύλων, ὑπὸ δὲ τῶν γόμφων φαινομένην ἐχέση τὴν ἔνωσιν. Of Sentences that, which denotes one Existence simply, and which is strictly ONE, may be considered as anabgous to a piece of Timber not yet severed, and called on this account One. That, which denotes several Existences, and which appears to be made ONE by some Conjunctive Particle, is analogous to a Ship made up of many pieces of Timber, and which by means of the nails has an apparent Unity. Am. in Lib. de Interpret. p. 54, 6.

Ch. II. the Sentences, yet as to their respective Meanings, is a perfect Disjunctive... And thus it appears, that though all Conjunctions conjoin Sentences, yet with respect to the Sense, some are Conjunctive, and fome Disjunctive; and hence (b) it is that we derive their different Species.

> THE Conjunctions, which conjoin both Sentences and their Meanings, are either COPULATIVES, OF CONTINUATIVES. The principal Copulative in English is, AND. The Continuatives are, If, Be-CAUSE, THEREFORE, THAT, &c. The Difference between these is this - The Copulative does no more than barely couple Sentences, and is therefore applicable to all Subjects, whose Natures are not incompatible. Continuatives, on the contrary, by a more intimate connection, consolidate

Sen-

⁽b) Thus Scaliger. Aut ergo Sensum conjungunt, ac Verba; aut Verba tantum conjungunt, Sensum vero disjungunt. De C. L. Lat. c. 167.

Sentences into one continuous Whole, and Ch.II. are therefore applicable only to Subjects, which have an effential Co-incidence.

To explain by examples—It is no way improper to fay, Lysppus was a Statuary, AND Priscian was a Grammarian — The Sun shineth, AND the Sky is clear—because these are things that may co-exist, and yet imply no absurdity. But it would be absurd to say, Lysppus was a Statuary, Because Priscian was a Grammarian; tho not to say, the Sun shineth, Because the Sky is clear. The Reason is, with respect to the first, the Co-incidence is merely accidental; with respect to the last, it is essential, and sounded in nature. And so much for the Distinction between Copulatives and Continuatives (c).

As

⁽c) Copulativa est, quæ copulat tam Verba, quam Senfum. Thus Priscian, p. 1026. But Scaliger is more explicit—si Sensum conjungunt (conjunctiones sc.) aut no-R 2 'cessario

Ch. II. As to Continuatives, they are either Suppositive, such as, If; or Positive, such as, Because, Therefore, As, &c. Take Examples of each—you will live bappily, if you live boneftly—you live bappily, Because you live boneftly. The Difference between these Continuatives is this—The Suppositives denote Connection, but affert not actual Existence; the Positives imply both the one and the other (d).

FARTHER

cessurio, aut non necessario: & si non necessario, tum fiunt Copulativa, &c. De C. Ling. Lat. c. 167. Priscian's own account of Continuatives is as follows. Continuative sunt, qua continuationem & consequentiam rerum significant—ibid. Scaliger's account is—caussam aut prastituunt, aut subdunt. Ibid. c. 168. The Greek name for the Copulative was Σύνδεσμω συμπλεκικός; for the Continuative, συναπικός; the Etymologies of which words justly distinguish their respective characters.

(d) The old Greek Grammarians confined the name Eurem [120], and the Latins that of Continuative, to those Con-

FARTHER than this, the Politives above Ch. II. mentioned are either CAUSAL, such as, BECAUSE, SINCE, As, &c. or COLLECTIVE, such as, Therefore, Wherefore, Then, &c. The Difference between these is this—the Causals subjoin Causes to Effects—The Sun is in Eclipse,

BE-

Conjunctions, which we have called Suppositive or Conditional, while the Positive they called wagaruvan lixol, They agree however in describing or Subcontinuativæ. their proper Characters. The first according to Gaza are, δι υπαρξιν μέν ε, ακολεθίαν δέ τινα κ) τάξιν δη-มิธังระร-L. IV. Priscian says, they signify to us, qualis est ordinatio & natura rerum, cum dubitatione aliquâ effentiæ rerum-p. 1027. And Scaliger fays, they conjoin sine subsistentia necessaria; potest enim subsistere & non subsistere; utrumque enim admittunt. Ibid. c. 168. On the contrary of the Politive, or wagasuvanlikoi (to use his own name) Gaza tells us, ὅτι κὰ ὑπαρξιν μετὰ τάξεως σημάινεσιν έτοιγε-And Priscian says, causam continuationis oftendunt consequentem cum essentia rerum-And Scaliger, non ex bypothesi, sed ex eo, quod subsistit, conjungunt. Ibid.

Ch. II. BECAUSE the Moon intervenes—The Collectives subjoin Effects to Causes—The Moon intervenes, THEREFORE the Sun is in Eclipse. Now we use Causals in those instances, where, the Effect being conspicuous, we seek its Cause; and Collectives, in Demonstrations, and Science properly so called, where the Cause being

It may feem at first somewhat strange, why the Positive Conjunctions should have been considered as Subordinate to the Suppositive, which by their antient Names appears to have been the fact. Is it, that the Politive are confined to what actually is; the Suppositive extend to Possibles, nay even as far as to Impossibles? Thus it is false to affirm, As it is Day, it is Light, unless it actually be Day. But we may at midnight affirm, If it be Day, it is Light, because the, IF, extends to Possibles also. Nay we may affirm, by its help (if we please) even Impossibles. We may say, If the Sun be cubical, then is the Sun angular; If the Sky fall, then shall we catch Larks. Thus too Scaliger upon the same occasion—amplitudinem Continuativæ percipi ex eo, quod etiam impossibile aliquando præsupponit. De C. L. Lat. C. 168. sense then the Continuative, Suppositive or Conditional Conjunction is (as it were) superior to the Positive, as being of greater latitude in its application.

known first, by its help we discern consequences (e).

ALL these Continuatives are resolvable into Copulatives. Instead of, BECAUSE it is Day, it is light, we may say, It is Day, AND it is Light. Instead of, Is it be Day, it is Light, we may say, It is at the same time necessary to be Day, AND to be Light; and so in other Instances. The Reason is, that the Power of the Copulative extends to all Connections, as well to the essential, as to the casual or fortuitous. Hence therefore the Continuative may be resolved into a Copulative and something more, that is to say, into a Copulative implying an essential Co-incidence (f) in the Subjects conjoined.

R 4

⁽e) The Latins called the Causals, Causales or Causativæ; the Collectives, Collectivæ or Illativæ: The Greeks called the former 'Αιτιολογικοί, and the latter Συλλογικικοί.

⁽f) Resolvantur autem in Copulativas omnes hæ, propterea quod Causa cum Effestu Suâpte naturâ conjunsta est, Scal. de C. L. Lat. c. 169.

Ch. II.

As to Caufal Conjunctions (of which we have spoken already) there is no one of the four Species of Causes, which they are not capable of denoting: for example, THE MATERIAL CAUSE—The Trumpet founds, BECAUSE it is made of Metal-THE FORMAL—The Trumpet founds, BECAUSE it is long and hollow-THE EFFICIENT-The Trumpet founds, BECAUSE an Artist blows it - THE FINAL - The Trumpet founds, THAT it may raise our courage. Where it is worth observing, that the three first Causes are exprest by the strong affirmation of the Indicative Mode, because if the Effect actually be, these must of necessity be also. But the last Cause has a different Mode, namely, the Contingent The Reason is, that the or Potential. Final Cause, tho' it may be first in Speculation, is always last in Event. That is to fay, however it may be the End, which set the Artist first to work, it may still be an End beyond his Power to obtain, and which,

which, like other Contingents, may either Ch. II. happen, or not (g). Hence also it is connected by Conjunctions of a peculiar kind, such as, That, sva, Ut, &c.

THE Sum is, that ALL CONJUNC-TIONS, which connect both Sentences and their Meanings, are either COPULATIVE, or CONTINUATIVE; the Continuatives are either Conditional, or Positive; and the Positives are either Causal or Collective.

AND now we come to the DISJUNC-TIVE CONJUNCTIONS, a Species of Words which bear this contradictory Name, because, while they disjoin the Sense, they conjoin the Sentences (b).

WITH

⁽g) See B. I. c. 8. p. 142. See also Vol. I. Note VIII. p. 271. For the four Causes, see Vol I. Note XVII. p. 280.

⁽b) 'Οι δὶ διαζευκ]ικοὶ τὰ διαζευγμένα συντιθέασι,
κὰ ἢ ωράγμα ἀπὸ ωράγματ, ἢ ωρόσωπον ἀπὸ ωροεώπε διαζευγνῦντες, τῆν φράσιν ἐπισυνδεσιν. Gazæ
Gram,

Ch. II. WITH respect to these we may observe, that as there is a Principle of Union disfused throughout all things, by which THIS WHOLE is kept together, and preserved from Dissipation; so there is a Principle of DIVERSITY dissured in like manner, the Source of Distinction, of Number, and of Order (i).

Now

Gram. L. IV. Disjunctive funt, quæ, quamvis distienes conjungant, fenfum tamen disjunctum habent. Prisc. L. XVI. p. 1029. And hence it is, that a Sentence, connected by Disjunctives, has a near resemblance to a fumple negative Truth. For though this as to its Intellection be disjunctive (its end being to disjoin the Subject from the Predicate) yet as it combines Terms together into one Proposition, it is as truly synthetical, as any Truth, that is affirmative. See Chap. I. Note (b). p. 3.

(i) The DIVERSITY, which adorns Nature, may be faid to heighten by degrees, and as it passes to different Subjects, to become more and more intense. Some things only differ, when considered as *Individuals*, but if we recur to their *Species*, immediately lose all Distinction: such for instance are *Socrates* and *Plato*. Others differ as to *Species*, but as to *Genus* are the same: such

Now it is to express in some degree the Ch. II. Modifications of this Diversity, that Dis-JUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS feem first to have been invented.

Of these Disjunctives, some are SIMPLE, some Adversative—Simple, as when we say, EITHER it is Day, OR it

are Man and Lion. There are others again, which differ as to Genus, and co-incide only in those transcendental Comprehensions of Ens, Being, Existence, and the like: such are Quantities and Qualities, as for example an Cance, and the Colour, White. Lastly ALL BEING whatever differs, as Being, from Non-being.

Farther, in all things different, however moderate their Diversity, there is an appearance of Opposition with respect to each other, in as much as each thing is it felf, and not any of the rest. But yet in all Subjects this Opposition is not the same. In RELATIVES, such as Greater and Less, Double and Half, Father and Son, Cause and Effect, in these it is more striking, than in ordinary Subjects, because these always shew it, by necesfarily inferring each other. In Contraries, such as Black and White, Even and Odd, Good and Bad, Virtuous

Ch. II. is Night—Adversative, as when we say, It is not Day, BUT it is Night. The Difference between these is, that the simple do no more, than merely disjoin; the Adversative disjoin, with an Opposition concomitant. Add to this, that the Adversative are definite; the Simple, indefinite. Thus when we say, The Number of Three is not

an

Virtuous and Vitious, in these the Opposition goes still farther, because these not only differ, but are even destructive of each other. But the most potent Opposition is that of 'Arliquous, or Contradiction, when we oppose Proposition to Proposition, Truth to Falshood, asserting of any Subject, either it is, or it is not. This indeed is an Opposition, which extends itself to all things, for every thing conceiveable must need have its Negative, though multitudes by nature have neither Relatives, nor Contraries.

Besides these Modes of DIVERSITY, there are others that deserve notice: such for instance, as the Diversity between the Name of a thing, and its Desimition; between the various Names, which belong to the same thing, and the various things, which are denoted by the same Name; all which Diversitie upon occasion become a Part of our Discourse. An so much, in short, for the Subject of DIVERSITY.

disjoin two opposite Attributes, but we definitely affirm one, and deny the other. But when we say, The Number of the Stars is EITHER even OR odd, though we affert one Attribute to be, and the other not to be, yet the Alternative notwithstanding is left indefinite. And so much for simple Disjunctives (k).

Ae

(k) The simple Disjunctive \hat{n} , or Vel, is mostly used indefinitely, so as to leave an Alternative. But when it is used definitely, so as to leave no Alternative, it is then a perfect Disjunctive of the Subsequent from the Previous, and has the same force with \hat{n} \hat{e} , or, Et. non, It is thus Gaza explains that Verse of Homer.

Βέλομ' έγω λαὸν σόον έμμεναι, η απολίσθαι. Ιλ. Α

That is to say, I defire the people should be saved, AND NOT be destroyed, the Conjunction is being αναιρετικός, or sublative. It must however be confest, that this Verse is otherwise explained by an Ellipsis, either of μάλλον, or αντίς, concerning which see the Commentators.

been said already that they imply Opposition of the same Attribute, in the same Subject, as when we say, Nireus was beautiful; but the Opposition must be either of the same Attribute in different Subjects, as when we say, Brutus was a Patriot, But Casar was not—or of different Attributes in the same Subject, as when we say, Gorgias was a Sophist, But not a Philosopher—or of different Attributes in different Subjects, as when we say, Plato was a Philosopher, But Hippias was a Sophist.

THE Conjunctions used for all these purposes may be called Absolute Adversatives.

BUT there are other Adversatives, befides these; as when we say, Nireus was more beautiful, THAN Ashilles—Virgil was As great a Poet, As Cicero was an Orator. Ch. II. The Character of these latter is, that they go farther than the former, by marking not only Opposition, but that Equality or Excess, which arises among Subjects from their being compared. And hence it is they may be called Adversatives of Comparison.

BESIDES the Adversatives here mentioned, there are two other Species, of which the most eminent are unless and altho'. For example—Troy will be taken, unless the Palladium be preserved—Troy will be taken, altho' Hector defend it. The Nature of these Adversatives may be thus explained. As every Event is naturally allied to its Cause, so by parity of reason it is opposed to its Preventive. And as every Cause is either adequate (1) or in-adequate (in-

^(!) This Diftinction has reference to common Opinion, and the form of Language, confonant thereto. In strict metaphysical truth, No Cause, that is not adequate, is any Cause at all.

Ch. II. (in-adequate, when it endeavours, without being effectual) so in like manner is
every Preventive. Now adequate Preventives are exprest by such Adversatives, as
UNLESS—Troy will be taken, UNLESS the
Palladium be preserved; that is, This alone
is sufficient to prevent it. The In-adequate
are exprest by such Adversatives, as AlTHO'—Troy will be taken, ALTHO' Hector
defend it; that is, Hector's Defence will
prove in-effectual.

THE Names given by the old Grammarians to denote these last Adversatives, appear not sufficiently to express their Natures (m). They may be better perhaps called Adversatives Adequate, and In-Adequate.

And thus it is that all Disjunctives, that is Conjunctions, which conjoin Sentences,

⁽m) They called them for the most part, without sufficient Distinction of their Species, Adversativa, or Εναντιωματικοί.

tences, but not their Meanings, are either Ch. II. SIMPLE or ADVERSATIVE; and that all Adversatives are either Absolute or Comparative; or else Adequate or In-adequate.

WE shall finish this Chapter with a few miscellany Observations.

In the first place it may be observed. through all the Species of Disjunctives, that the same Disjunctive appears to have greater or less force, according as the Subjects, which it disjoins, are more or less disjoined by Nature. For example, if we say, Every Number is even, or odd-Every Proposition is true, or false-nothing Ieems to disjoin more strongly than the Disjunctive, because no things are in Nature more incompatible than the Subjects. But if we say, That Object is a Triangle, OR Figure contained under three right lines —the (OR) in this case hardly seems to disjoin, or indeed to do more, than difinely to express the Thing, first by its

Name.

Ch. II. Name, and then by its Definition. So if we fay, That Figure is a Sphere, OR a Globe, OR a Ball—the Disjunctive in this case, tends no farther to disjoin, than as it distinguishes the several Names, which belong to the same Thing (n).

AGAIN—the Words, When and Where, and all others of the same nature, such as, Whence, Whither, Whenever, Wherever, &c. may be properly called ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTIONS, because they participate the nature both of Adverbs and Conjunctions—of Conjunctions, as they conjoin Senten—

ces;

⁽n) The Latins had a peculiar Particle for this occafion, which they called Subdisjunctiva, a Subdisjunctive; and that was SIVE. Alexander five Paris; Mars five Mavors. The Greek "Eit" is feems to answer the same end. Of these Particles, Scaliger thus speaks—Et same nomen Subdisjunctivarum rette acceptum est, neque enim tam plane disjungit, quam Disjunctiva. Nam Disjunctiva sunt in Contrariis—Subdisjunctiva autem etiam in sin Contrariis, sed Diversis tantum; ut, Alexander sive Paris. De C. L. Lat. c. 170.

ces; of Adverbs, as they denote the At Ch. II. tributes either of Time, or of Place.

AGAIN—these Adverbial Conjunctions, and perhaps most of the Prepositions (contrary to the Character of accessory Words. which have strictly no Signification, but when affociated with other words) have a kind of obscure Signification, when taken alone, by denoting those Attributes of Time and Place. And hence it is, that they appear in Grammar, like Zoopbytes in Nature; a kind of (o) middle Beings, of amphibious character, which, by sharing the Attributes of the higher and the lower, conduce to link the Whole together (p).

And

⁽⁰⁾ Πολλαχοῦ γας ή φύσις δήλη γίνεται κατα μικρου μεταδαίνεσα, ώξε αμφισθητείσθαι έπὶ τίνων, σότερον ζωον η φυτάν. Themist. p. 74. Ed. Ald. also Arist. de Animal. Part. p. 93. l. 10. Ed. Syll.

⁽p) It is somewhat surprizing that the politest and most elegant of the Attic Writers, and Plate above all

HERMES.

Ch. II. And fo much for Conjunctions, their Genus, and their Species.

the rest, should have their works filled with Particles of all kinds, and with Conjunctions in particular; while in the modern polite works, as well of ourselves as of our neighbours, scarce such a Word as a Particle, or Conjunction is to be found. Is it, that where there is Connection in the Meaning, there must be Words had to connect; but that where the Connection is little or none, such Connectives are of little use? That Houses of Cards, without cement, may well answer their end, but not those Houses, where one would chuse to dwell? Is this the Cause? or have we attained an Elegance, to the Antients unknown?

Fenimus ad summam fortunæ, &c.

C:HAP. III.

Concerning those Connectives, called Prepositions.

Their Place, but not their Character.

Their Definition will distinguish them from the former Connectives. A Preposition is a Part of Speech, devoid itself of Signification, but so formed as to unite two Words that are significant, and that refuse to co-alesce or unite of themselves (a).

This

(a) The Stoic Name for a Preposition was Προθετικός Σύνδεσμος, Prapositiva Conjunctio, a Prepositive Conjunction. ΄ Ως μεν εν κ) κατά τας άλλας παραθέσεις αι προθέσεις συνδεσμικής συνθάξεως γίνον αι παρεμφατικάι, λέλεκ αι ήμιν ΄ εξ ων κ) αφορμή ευρηται παρά τοις Στωικοίς τε καλείσθαι αυθάς Προθετικές Συνδέσμες. Now in what manner even in other applications (besides the present) Prepositions give proof of their Conjunctive Syntax, we have mentioned already; whence too

Ch.III. This connective Power, (which relates to Words only, and not Sentences) will be better understood from the following Speculations.

Some things co-alesce and unite of themselves; others resuse to do so without belp, and as it were compulsion. Thus in Works of Art, the Morter and the Stone co-alesce of themselves; but the Wainscot and the Wall not without Nails and Pins. In nature this is more conspicuous. For example; all Quantities, and Qualities co-alesce immediately with their Substances. Thus it is we say, a sierce Lion, a vast Mountain; and from this Natural Concord of Subject and Accident, arises the Grammatical Concord of Substantive and Adjective. In like

the Stoics took occasion to call them PREPOSITIVE CON-JUNCTIONS. Apollon. L. IV. C. 5. p. 313. Yet is this In fact rather a descriptive Sketch, than a complete Definition, since there are other Conjunctions, which are Prepositive as well as these. See Gaz. L. IV. de Preposit. Prisc. L. XIV. p. 983.

like manner Actions co-alesce with their Ch.III. Agents, and Passions with their Patients. Thus it is we fay, Alexander conquers; Desrius is conquered. Nay, as every Energy is a kind of Medium between its Agent and Patient, the whole three, Agent, Energy, and Patient, co-alesce with the same facility; as when we fay, Alexander conquers Darius. And hence, that is from these Modes of natural Co-alescence, prifes the Grammatical Regimen of the Verb by its Nominative, and of the Accufative by its Verb. Farther than this, Attributives themselves may be most of them characterized; as when we say of such Attributives as ran, beautiful, learned, he ran swiftly, she was very beautiful, he was moderately learned, &c. And hence the Co-alescence of the Adverb with Verbs, Participles, and Adjectives.

The general Conclusion appears to be this. "Those Parts of Speech unite of of themselves in Grammar, whose "original Archetypes unite of \$4.

Ch.III. "THEMSELVES IN NATURE." To which we may add, as following from what has been faid, that the great Objects of Natural Union are Substance and Attribute. Now the Substances naturally coincide with their Attributes, yet they absolutely refuse doing so, one with another (b). And hence those known Maxims in Physics, that Body is impenetrable; that two Bodies cannot possess the same place; that the same Attribute cannot belong to different Substances, &c.

From these Principles it follows, that when we form a Sentence, the Substantive without difficulty co-incides with the Verb, from the natural Co-incidence of Substance and Energy—The Sun Warmeth. So likewise the Energy with the Subject, on which

⁽b) Causa, propter quam duo Substantiva non ponuntur sine copulà, e Philisophia petenda est: neque enim duo substantialiter unum esse potest, sicut Substantia et Accidens; itaque non dicas, CESAR, CATO PUGNAT. Scal. du Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 177.

which it operates --- WARMETH THE Ch.III. EARTH. So likewise both Substance and Exergy with their proper Attributes .-THESPLENDIDSUN, -GENIALLY WARM-ETH-THE FERTILE EARTH. But Suppose we were desirous to add other Substantives, as for instance, AIR, or BEAMS. How would these co-incide, or under what Character could they be introduced? Not as Nominatives or Accusatives, for both those places are already filled; the Nominative by the Substance, Sun; the Accufative by the Substance, EARTH. Not as Attributes to these last, or to any other thing; for Attributes by nature they neither are, nor can be made. Here then we perceive the Rise and Use of PREPOSI-By these we connect those Substantives to Sentences, which at the time are unable to co-alesce of themselves. Let us assume for instance a pair of these Connectives, Thro', and WITH, and mark their Effect upon the Substances here mentioned. The splendid Sun WITH his Beams genially

Ch.III. genially warmeth THRO' the Air the fertile

Earth. The Sentence, as before, remains
intire and one; the Substantives required
are both introduced; and not a Word,
which was there before, is detruded from
its proper place.

IT must here be observed that most, if not all Prepositions seem originally sormed to denote the Relations of PLACE (c). The reason is, this is that grand Relation, which Bodies or natural Substances maintain at all times one to another, whether they are contiguous or remote, whether in motion or at rest.

It may be faid indeed that in the Comtinuity of Place they form this UNIVERSE

OF

⁽c) Omne corpus aut movetur aut quicscit: quare opus suit aliqua nota, quæ TO NOY signisticaret, sive esset inter due extrema, inter quæ motus sit, sive esset in altero extremorum, in quibus sit quies. Hinc cliciemus Præpositionis essentialem desinitionem. Scal. de Caus. Ling. Lat. c. 152.

or visible Whole, and are made as Ch.III. much One by that general Comprehension, as is consistent with their several Natures, and specific Distinctions. Thus it is we have Prepositions to denote the contiguous Relation of Body, as when we say, Caius walketh with a Staff; the Statue flood upon a Pedestal; the River ran over a Sand: others for the detached Relation. as when we say, He is going To Italy; the Sun is risen ABOVE the Hills; these Figs came FROM Turky. So as to Motion and Rest, only with this difference, that bere the Preposition varies its character with the Verb. Thus if we say, that Lamp bangs FROM the Ceiling, the Preposition, FROM, assumes a Character of Quiescence. But if we say, that Lamp is falling FROM the Ceiling, the Preposition in such case assumes a Character of Motion. Milton.

—To support uneasse Steps

Over the burning Marle—Par. L. I.

Here over denotes Motion,

Again

Ch.III. Again-

—He—with looks of cordial Love Hung over her enamour'd—Par. L. IV.

Here over denotes Reft.

But though the original use of Prepositions was to denote the Relations of Place, they could not be confined to this Office only. They by degrees extended themselves to Subjects incorporeal, and came to denote Relations, as well intellectual as local. Thus, because in Place he, who is above, has commonly the advantage over him, who is below, hence we transfer over and UNDER to Dominion and Obedience; of a King we say, be ruled over bis People; of a common Soldier, be ferved UNDER fuch a General. So too we say, with Thought; without Attention; thinking over a Subject; under Anxiety; from Fear; out of Love; through Jealousy, &c. All which instances, with many others of like kind,

kind, shew that the first Words of Men, Ch.III. like their first Ideas, had an immediate reference to sensible Objects, and that in afterdays, when they began to discern with their Intellect, they took those Words, which they found already made, and transferred them by metaphor to intellectual Conceptions. There is indeed no Method to express new Ideas, but either this of Metaphor, or that of Coining new Words, both which have been practised by Philosophers and wise Men, according to the nature, and exigence of the occasion (d).

In

⁽d) Among the Words new coined we may ascribe to Anaxagoras, 'Ομοιομέρεια; to Plato, Ποιότης; to Cicero, Qualitas; to Aristotle, 'Ενθελέχεια; to the Stoics, 'Ουτις, κεράτις, and many others.—Among the Words transferred by Metaphor from common to special Meanings, to the Platonics we may ascribe 'Ιδία; to the Pythagoreans and Peripatetics, Κατηγορία, and Κατηγορείν; to the Stoics, Κατάληψις, ὑπόληψις, κα-θήκον; to the Pyrrhonists, Έξεςι, ἐνδέχεται, ἐπέχω, εκ.

Ch.III. In the foregoing use of Prepositions, we have seen how they are applied nata wapasses, by way of Juxta-position, that is to say, where they are prefixt to a Word, with-

And here I cannot but observe, that he who pretends to discuss the Sentiments of any one of these Philosophers, or even to cite and translate him (except in trite and obvious Sentences) without accurately knowing the Greek Tongue in general; the nice differences of many Words apparently fynonymous; the peculiar Stile of the Author whom he prefumes to handle; the new coined Words, and new Significations given to old Words, used by such Author, and his Sect; the whole Philosophy of fuch Sect, together with the Connections and Dependencies of its several Parts, whether Logical, Ethical, or Physical;—He I say, that, without this previous preparation, attempts what I have faid, will shoot in the dark; will be liable to perpetual blunders; will explain, and praise, and censure merely by chance; and though he may possibly to Fools appear as a wife Man, will certainly among the wife ever pass for a Fool. Such a Man's Intellect comprehends antient Philosophy, as his Eye comprehends a distant Prospect. He may fee perhaps enough, to know Mountains from Plains, and Seas from Woods; but for an accurate discernment of particulars, and their character, this without farther helps, it is impossible he should attain.

without becoming a Part of it. But they Ch.III. may be used also nata ourseour, by way of Composition, that is, they may be prefixt to a Word, so as to become a real Part of it (e). Thus in Greek we have Exicactar. in Latin, Intelligere, in English, to Understand. So also, to foretel, to overact, to undervalue, to outgo, &c. and in Greek and Latin. other Instances innumerable. this case the Prepositions commonly transfule something of their own Meaning into the Word, with which they are compounded; and this imparted Meaning in most instances will be found ultimately resolvable into some of the Relations of PLACE, (f) as used either in its proper or metaphorical acceptation.

LASTLY,

⁽e) See Gaz. Gram. L. IV. Cap. de Præpositione.

⁽f) For example, let us suppose some given Space. E & Ex signify out of that Space; PER, through it, from beginning to end; IN, within it; SUB, under it.

12. Hence

Ch.III. LASTLY, there are times, when Prepofitions totally lose their connective Nature, being

Hence then E and PER in composition augment; Enormis, something not simply big, but big in excess; something got out of the rule, and beyond the measure; Dico, to speak; Edico, to speak out; whence Edictum, an Edict, something so effectually spoken, as all are supposed to hear, and all to obey. So Terence,

Dico, Edico vobis-Eun. V. 5. 20.

which (as Donatus tells us in his Comment) if an Avenous. Fari, to speak; Effari, to speak out—hence Effatum, an Axiom, or self-evident Proposition, something addressed as it were to all men, and calling for universal Assent. Cic. Acad. II. 29. Permagnus, Perutilis, great throughout, useful through every part.

On the contrary, In and SUB diminish and lessen. Injustus, Iniquus, unjust, inequitable, that lies within Justice and Equity, that reaches not so far, that falls short of them; Subniger, blackish; Subrubicundus, reddish; tending to black, and tending to red, but yet under the standard, and below persection.

Emo originally fignified to take away; hence it came to fignify to buy, because he, who buys, takes away his purchase. INTER, Between, implies Discontinu-

ance,

being converted into Adverbs, and used Ch.III. in Syntax accordingly. Thus Homer,

- -Γέλασσε δὲ ωᾶσα ωερὶ χθών.
- -And Earth smil'd all around.

Ia. Т. 362.

But of this we have spoken in a preceding Chapter. (g). One thing we must however observe, before we finish this Chapter, which is, that whatever we may be told of Cases in modern Languages, there are in fact no such things; but their force and power is exprest by two Methods,

ance, for in things continuous there can nothing lie between. From these two comes, Interimo, to kill, that is to say, to take a Man away in the midst of Life, by making a Discontinuance of his vital Energy. So also Perimo, to kill a Man, that is to say, to take him away thoroughly; for indeed what more thorough taking away can well be supposed? The Greek Verb, 'Avaigaiv, and the English Verb, To take off, seem both to carry the same allusion. And thus it is that Prepositions become Parts of other Words.

⁽g) See before, p. 205.

Ch.III. thods, either by Situation, or by Prepositions; the Nominative and Accusative Cases by Situation; the rest, by Prepositions. But this we shall make the Subject of a Chapter by itself, concluding here our Inquiry concerning Prepositions.

CHAP IV.

Concerning Cases.

S CASES, or at least their various Ch.IV. Powers, depend on the knowledge partly of Nouns, partly of Verbs, and partly of Prepositions; they have been referved, till those Parts of Speech had been examined and discussed, and are for that reason made the Subject of so late a Chapter, as the present.

There are no Cases in the modern Languages, except a few among the primitive Pronouns, such as I, and Me; Je, and Moy; and the English Genitive, formed by the addition of s, as when from Lion, we form Lion's; from Ship, Ship's. From this defect however we may be enabled to discover in some instances what a Case is, the Periphrasis, which supplies

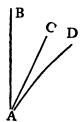
Ch.IV. plies its place, being the Case (as it were) unfolded. Thus Equi is analized into Du Cheval, Of the Horse, Equb into Au Cheval, To the Horse. And hence we see that the GENITIVE and DATIVE CASES imply the joint Power of a Noun and a Preposition, the Genitive's Preposition being A, De, or Ex, the Dative's Preposition being Ad, or Versus.

WE have not this affistance as to the Accusative, which in modern Languages (a few instances excepted) is only known from its position, that is to say, by being subsequent to its Verb, in the collocation of the words.

THE VOCATIVE we pass over from its little use, being not only unknown to the modern Languages, but often in the antient being supplied by the *Nominative*.

THE ABLATIVE likewise was used by the Romans only; a Case they seem to have adopted adopted to affociate with their Prepositions, Ch.IV. as they had deprived their Genitive and Dative of that privilege; a Case certainly not necessary, because the Greeks do as well without it, and because with the Romans themselves it is frequently undistinguished.

THERE remains the NOMINATIVE, which whether it were a Case or no, was much disputed by the Antients. The Peripatetics held it to be no Case, and likened the Noun, in this its primary and original Form, to a perpendicular Line, such for example, as the line AB.



The Variations from the Nominative, they considered as if A B were to fall from its perpendicular, as for example, to A C, or A D. Hence then they only called these

Ch. IV. Variations, MTOSEIS, CASUS, CASES, OF FALLINGS. The Stoics on the contrary, and the Grammarians with them, made the Nominative a CASE also. Words they confidered (as-it were) to fall from the Mind, or discursive Faculty. Now when a Noun fell thence in its primary Form, they then called it HTOSIS OPOH, CASUS REC-TUS, AN ERECT, OF UPRIGHT CASE OF FALLING, such as AB, and by this name they distinguished the Nominative. When it fell from the Mind under any of its variations, as for example in the form of a Genitive, a Dative, or the like, such variations they called ΠΤΩΣΕΙΣ ΠΛΑΓΙΑΙ, CAsus obliqui, oblique Cases, or side-LONG FALLINGS (fuch as AC, or AD) in opposition to the other (that is AB) which was erect and perpendicular (a). Hence too Grammarians called the Method of enumerating the various Cases of a Noun. . ΚΛΙΣΙΣ, DECLINATIO, a DECLENSION.

⁽⁴⁾ See Ammon. in Libr. de Interpr. p. 35-

it being a fort of progressive Descent from Ch. IV. the Noun's upright Form thro' its various declining Forms, that is, a Descent from AB, to AC, AD, &c.

OF these Cases we shall treat but of four, that is to say, the Nominative, the Accusative, the Genitive, and the Dative.

IT has been said already in the preceding Chapter, that the great Objects of natural Union are Substance and Attribute. Now from this Natural Concord arises the Logical Concord of Subject and Predicate, and the Grammatical Concord of Substantive and Attributive (b). These Concords in Speech produce Propositions and Sentences, as that previous Concord in Nature produces natural Beings. This being admitted,

⁽b) See before, p. 264.

Ch. IV. admitted, we proceed by observing, that when a Sentence is regular and orderly, Nature's Substance, the Logician's Subject, and the Grammarian's Substantive are all denoted by that Case, which we call the Nominative. For example, CÆSAR pugnat, Æs fingitur, Domus ædificatur. We may remark too by the way, that the Character of this Nominative may be learnt from its Attributive. The Action implied in pugnat, shews its Nominative CÆSAR to be an Active efficient Cause; the Passion implied in fingitur, shews its Nominative Æs to be a Passive Subject, as does the Paffion in adificatur prove Domus to be an Effect.

As therefore every Attributive would as far as possible conform itself to its Substantive, so for this reason, when it has Cases, it imitates its Substantive, and appears as a Nominative also. So we find it in such instances as—Cicero est eloquens; Vitium est turpe; Homo est Animal,

ANIMAL, &c. When it has no Cases, Ch. IV. (as happens with Verbs) it is forced to content itself with such affimilations as it has, those of Number and Person *; as when we say, Cicero Loquitur; nos Loquimur; Homines Loquintur.

FROM what has been said, we may make the following observations—that as there can be no Sentence without a Sub-stantive, so that Substantive, if the Sentence be regular, is always denoted by a Nominative—that on this occasion all the Attributives, that have Cases, appear as Nominatives also—that there may be a regular and perfect Sentence without any of the other Cases, but that without one Nominative at least, this is utterly impossible. Hence therefore we form its Character and Description—The Nominative is that Case, without which there can be no regular

^{*} What fort of Number and Person Verbs have, see before, p. 170, 171.

Ch. IV. lar (c) and perfect Sentence. We are now to search after another Case.

When the Attributive in any Sentence , is some Verb denoting Action, we may be affured the principal Substantive is some active efficient Cause. So we may call Achilles and Lysippus in such Sentences as Achilles vulneravit, Lyfippus fecit. though this be evident and clearly understood, the Mindis still in suspence, and finds its conception incomplete. Action, it well knows, not only requires some Agent, but it must have a Subject also to work on, and it must produce some Effect. It is then to denote one of these (that is, the Subject or the Effect) that the Authors of Language

⁽c) We have added regular as well as perfect, because there may be irregular Sentences, which may be perfect without a Nominative. Of this kind are all Sentences, made out of those Verbs, called by the Stoics Παςαστυμβάματα or Παςακατηγοςήματα, such as Σωκράτει μετάμελει, Socratem pænitet, &c. See before, p. 180.

guage have destined THE ACCUSATIVE. Ch. IV. Achilles vulneravit HECTOREM—here the Accusative denotes the Subject. Lysippus fecit statuas—here the Accusative denotes the Effect. By these additional Explanations the Mind becomes fatisfied. and the Sentences acquire a Perfection, which before they wanted. In whatever other manner, whether figuratively, or with Prepositions, this Case may have been used, its first destination seems to have been that here mentioned, and hence therefore we shall form its Character and Description—THE ACCUSATIVE is that Case, which to an efficient Nominative and a Verb of Action subjoins either the Effect or the passive Subject. We have still left the Genitive and the Dative, which we investigate, as follows.

IT has been faid in the preceding Chapter (d), that when the Places of the Nominative

⁽d) See before, p. 265.

Ch.IV. minative and the Accusative are filled by proper Substantives, other Substantives are annexed by the help of Prepositions. Now, though this be so far true in the modern Languages, that (a very few instances excepted) they know no other method; yet is not the rule of equal latitude with respect to the Latin or Greek, and that from reasons which we are about to offer.

Among the various Relations of Substantives denoted by Prepositions, there
appear to be two principal ones; and these
are, the Term or Point, which something
commences from, and the Term or Point,
which something tends to. These Relations the Greeks and Latins thought of
sogreat importance, as to distinguish them,
when they occurred, by peculiar Terminations of their own, which express their
force, without the help of a Preposition.
Now it is here we behold the Rise of the
antient Genitive, and Dative, the GeniTive being formed to express all Relations
com-

commencing FROM itself; THE DATIVE, Ch.IV. all Relations tending To itself. Of this there can be no stronger proof, than the Analysis of these Cases in the modern Languages, which we have mentioned already (e).

It is on these Principles that they say in Greek — Δεομαί ΣΟΥ, δίδωμί ΣΟΙ, Or these I ask, To thee I give. The reason is, in requests the person requested is one whom something is expected from; in donations, the person presented, is one whom something passes to. So again—

(f) Πεποίηται λίθε, it is made of Stone. Stone was the passive Subject, and thus it appears in the Genitive, as being the Term from, or out of which. Even in Latin, where the Syntax is more formal and strict, we read—

Implentur

⁽e) See before, p. 275, 276.

⁽f) Χρυσοῦ ωτποιημένος, κ) ἐλέφανδος, made of Gold and Ivory. So says Pausanias of the Olympian Jupiter, L. V. p. 400. See also Hom. Iliad. Σ. 574.

Implentur veteris Bacchi, pinguisque fcrinæ.

The old Wine and Venison were the funds or stores, of or from which they were filled. Upon the same principles, Πίνω τε ύδατος, is a Phrase in Greek; and Je bois de l'eau, a Phrase in French, as much as to say, I take some or a certain part, FROM OF OUT OF a certain whole.

When we meet in Language fuch Genitives as the Son of a Father; the Father of a Son; the Picture of a Painter; the Painter of a Picture, &c. these are all RE-LATIVES, and therefore each of them reciprocally a Term or Point to the other. FROM or out of which it derives its Effence, or at least its Intellection (g).

 $\mathbf{T}_{ ext{HE}}$

⁽g) All Relatives are faid to reciprocate, or mutually infer each other, and therefore they are often exprest by this Case, that is to say, the Genitive. Thus Aristotle, Πάνλα δε τὰ πρός τι πρός ανλισρέφουλα λέγεται,

THE Dative, as it implies Tendency to, Ch.IV. is employed among its other uses to denote the Final Cause, that being the Cause to which all Events, not fortuitous, may be said to tend. It is thus used in the following instances, among innumerable others.

TIBI fuaveis dædala tellus

Submittit flores— Lucret.

—TIBI brachia contrabit ardens

Scorpios— Virg. G. I.

—TIBI ferviat ultima Thule.

Ibid.

AND so much for CASES, their Origin and Use; a Sort of Forms, or Terminations.

οῖον ὁ δελ & δεσπότε δελω, κ) ὁ δεσπότης δελε δεσπότης λέγεται εἶναι, κ) τὸ διπλάσιον ἡμίσε διπλάσιον, κ) τὸ ἡμισυ διπλασίε ἡμισυ. Omnia v.ro, quæ
funt ad aliquid, referentur ad ea, quæ reciprocantur. Ut
fervus dicitur domini fervus; et dominus, fervi dominus;
necnon duplum, dimidii duplum; et dimidium, dupli dimidium. Categor. C. VII.

Ch.IV. tions, which we could not well pass over, from their great importance (b) both in the Greek and Latin Tongues; but which however, not being among the Essentials of Language, and therefore not to be found in many particular Languages, can be hardly said to fall within the limits of our Inquiry.

⁽b) Annon et illud observatione dignum (licet nobis modernis spiritus nonnihil redundat) antiquas Linguas plenas declinationum, casuum, conjugationum, et similium suisse; modernas, bis sere destitutas, plurima per præpositiones et verba auxiliaria segniter expedire? Sanè facile quis conjiciat (utcunque nobis ipsi placeamus) ingenia priorum seculorum nostris suisse multo acutiora et subtiliora. Bacon. de Augm. Scient. VI. 1.

CHAP. V.

Concerning Interjections—Recapitulation—
Conclusion.

ESIDES the Parts of Speech before Ch. V. mentioned, there remains THE IN-TERJECTION. Of this Kind among the Greeks are $^{5}\Omega$, $\Phi \epsilon \tilde{v}$, $^{5}A_{I}$, &c. among the Latins, Ab! Heu! Hei! &c. among the English, Ab! Alas! Fie! &c. the Greeks have ranged among their Adverbs; improperly, if we consider the Adverbial Nature, which always co-incides with some Verb, as its Principal, and to which it always ferves in the character of an Attributive. Now Interjections co-incide with no Part of Speech, but are either uttered alone, or else thrown into a Sentence, without altering its Form, either in Syntax or Signification. The Latins feem therefore to have done better in + feparating

[†] Vid. Servium in Eneid XII. v. 486,

Ch.V. parating them by themselves, and giving them a name by way of distinction from the rest.

Should it be ask'd, if not Adverbs, what then are they? It may be answered, not so properly Parts of Speech, as adventitious Sounds; certain Voices of NATURE, rather than Voices of Art, expressing those Passions and natural Emotions, which spontaneously arise in the human Soul, upon the View or Narrative of interesting Events (a).

"And

⁽a) Interjectiones a Græcis ad Adverbæ referuntur, atque eos sequitur etiam Boethius. Et recte quidem de iis, quando casum regunt. Sed quando orationi solum inseruntur, ut nota affectús, velut suspirii aut metús, vix videntur ad classem aliquam pertinere, ut quæ naturales sint notæ; non, aliarum vocum instar, ex instituto significant. Vost de Anal. L. I. c. 1. Interjectio est Vox affectum mentis significans, ac citra verbi opem sententiam complens. Ibid. c. 3. Restat classium extrema, Interjectio. Hujus appellatio non simi-

"And thus we have found that ALL Ch. V.
"Words are either significant by
"THEMSELVES, OR ONLY SIGNIFICANT,
U 2 "WHEN

similiter se habet ac Conjunctionis. Nam cum hæc dicatur Conjunctio, quia conjungat; Interjectio tamen, non quia interjacet, sed quia interjicitur, nomen accepit. Nec tamen de usia ejus est, ut interjiciatur; cum per se compleat sententiam, nec raro ab ea incipiat oratio. Ibid. L. IV. INTERJECTIONEM non esse partem Orationis sic ostendo: Quod naturale est, idem est apud omnes: Sed gemitus & signa lætitiæ idem sunt apud omnes: Sunt igitur naturales. Si vero naturales, non sunt partes Orationis. Nam eæ partes, secundum Aristotelem, ex instituto, non naturâ, debent constare. Interjectionem Græci Adverbiis adnumerant; sed falso. Nam neque, &c. Sanct. Miner. L. I. c. 2. Interjectionem Graci inter Adverbia ponunt, quoniam hæc quoque vel adjungitur verbis, vel verba ei subaudiuntur. Ut si dicam-Papæ! quid video?-vel per se-Papæ!-etiams non addatur, Miror; habet in se ipsius verbi significationem. Quæ res maxime fecit Romanarum artium Scriptores separatim hanc partem ab Adverbiis accipere; quia videtur affectum habere in sese Verbi, et plenam motus animi significationem, etiamsi non addatur Verbum, demonstrare. Interjectio tamen non solum illa, quæ dicum Græci σχετλιασμον, significat; sed etiam voces, quæ cujuscunque passionis animi pulsu per exclamationem interjiciuntur. Prisc. L. XV.

"when Associated—that those signi-"ficant by themselves, denote either Sub-" STANCES or ATTRIBUTES, and are call-"ed for that reason Substantives and "ATTRIBUTIVES—that the Substantives " are either Nouns or Pronouns—that "theATTRIBUTIVES are either PRIMARY " or SECONDARY—that the Primary At-"tributives are either VERBS, PARTICI-"PLES, or ADJECTIVES; the Secondary, "ADVERBS - Again, that the Parts of " Speech, only fignificant when affociated, are " either Definitives or Connectives "-that the Definitives are either ARTI-"CULAR or PRONOMINAL—and that the

> And thus have we resolved Language. AS A WHOLE INTO ITS CONSTITUENT PARTS, which was the first thing, that we proposed, in the course of this Inquiry(b).

> " Connectives are either PREPOSITIONS or

"Conjunctions."

Bur

⁽b) See before, p. 7.

BUT now as we conclude, methinks I Ch. V. hear some Objector, demanding with an air of pleasantry, and ridicule-" Is there " no speaking then without all this trouble? "Do we not talk every one of us, as well " unlearned, as learned; as well poor Pea-" fants, as profound Philosophers?" We may answer by interrogating on our part -Do not those same poor Peasants use' the Levar and the Wedge, and many other Instruments, with much habitual readiness? And yet have they any conception of those Geometrical Principles, from which those Machines derive their Efficacy and Force? And is the Ignorance of these Peasants, a reason for others to remain ignorant; or to render the Subject a less becoming Inquiry? Think of Animals, and Vegetables, that occur every day-of Time, of Place, and of Motion -of Light, of Colours, and of Gravitation-of our very Senses and Intellect, by which we perceive every thing elfe-U3 THAT

Ch. V. THAT they are, we all know, and are perfectly fatisfied—WHAT they are, is a Subject of much obscurity and doubt. Were we to reject this last Question, because we are certain of the first, we should banish all Philosophy at once out of the world (c).

But a graver Objector now accosts us, "What (says he) is the UTILITY? "Whence the Prosit, where the Gain?" Every Science whatever (we may answer) has its Use. Arithmetic is excellent

⁽c) 'Αλλ' έςι σολλά τῶν ὄνίων, ἃ την μὲν ὅπαρξια ἔχει γνωριμωτάτην, ἀγνωςοτάτην δὲ την ἐσίαν ὅσπερ ἔτε κίνησις, κ) ὁ τόπος, ἔτι δὲ μᾶλλον ὁ χρόνος. Ἐκάς κ γὰρ τέτων τὸ μὲν εἶναι γνώριμον κ) ἀναμφίλειτον τίς δὲ σοτέ ἐςιν ἀυτῶν ἡ ἐσία, τῶν χαλεπωτάτων ὁραθήναι. Εςι δὲ δὴ τί τῶν τοικτων κ) ἡ ψυχής τὸ μὲν γὰρ εἶναι τι την ψυχην, γνωριμώτατον κ) φατό μὲν γὰρ εἶναι τι την ψυχην, γνωριμώτατον κ) φατό λλεξανδ. ᾿Αφροδ. Περὶ ψυχης, Β΄. p. 142.

lent for the gauging of Liquors; Geometry, for the measuring of Estates; Astronomy, for the making of Almanacks; and Grammar perhaps, for the drawing of Bonds and Conveyances.

Thus much to the Sordid — If the Liberal ask for something better than this, we may answer and assure them from the best authorities, that every Exercise of the Mind upon Theorems of Science, like generous and manly Exercise of the Body, tends to call forth and strengthen Nature's original Vigour. Be the Subject itself immediately lucrative or not, the Nerves of Reason are braced by the mere Employ, and we become abler Actors in the Drama of Life, whether our Part be of the busier, or of the sedater kind.

U 4

PERHAPS

Ch. V.

PERHAPS too there is a Pleasure even in Science itself, distinct from any End, to which it may be farther conducive. Are not Health and Strength of Body defirable for their own sakes, tho' we happen not to be fated either for Porters or Draymen; And have not Health and Strength of Mind their intrinsic Worth also, tho' not condemned to the low drudgery of fordid Emolument? Why should there not be a Good (could we have the Grace to recognize it) in the mere Energy of our Intellect, as much as in Energies of lower degree? The Sportsman believes there is Good in his Chace; the Man of Gaiety, in his Intrigue; even the Glutton, in his Meal. We may justly ask of these, why they pursue such things; but if they anfwer, they pursue them, because they are Good, it would be folly to ask them farther, WHY they PURSUE what is GOOD. It might well in such case be replied on their

their behalf (how strange soever it may at first appear) that if there was not something Good, which was in no respect useful, even things useful themselves could not possibly have existence. For this is in fact no more than to assert, that some things are Ends, some things are Means, and that if there were no Ends, there could be of course no Means.

It should seem then the Grand Question was, what is Good—that is to say, what is that which is desirable, not for something else, but for itself; for whether it be the Chace, or the Intrigue, or the Meal, may be fairly questioned, since Men in each instance are far from being agreed.

In the mean time it is plain from daily experience, there are infinite Pleasures, Amusements, and Diversions, some for Summer, others for Winter; some for Country,

Ch. V. Country, others for Town; some, easy, indolent, and soft; others, boisterous, active, and rough; a multitude diversified to every taste, and which for the time are enjoyed as PERFECT GOOD, without a thought of any End, that may be farther obtained. Some Objects of this kind are at times sought by all men, excepting alone that contemptible Tribe, who, from a love to the Means of life wholly forgetting its End, are truly for that reason called Misers, or Miserable.

Is there be supposed then a Pleasure, a Satisfaction, a Good, a Something valuable for its self without view to any thing farther, in so many Objects of the sub-ordinate kind; shall we not allow the same praise to the sublimest of all Objects? Shall THE INTELLECT alone feel no pleasures in its Energy, when we allow them to the grossest Energies of Appetite, and Sense? Or if the Reality of all Pleasures and Goods

were

were to be controverted, may not the Intellectual Sort be defended, as rationally as any of them? Whatever may be urged in behalf of the rest (for we are not now arraigning them) we may safely affirm of INTELLECTUAL GOOD, that it is "the "Good of that Part, which is most ex-" cellent within us; that it is a Good ac-" commodated to all Places and Times; "which neither depends on the will of others, nor on the affluence of external "Fortune; that it is a Good, which de-" cays not with decaying Appetites, but "often rises in vigour, when those are no "more (d)."

THERE is a Difference, we must own, between this Intellectual Virtue, and Moral Virtue, from its Employment, may be called more Hu-

⁽d) See Vol. I. p. 119, 120, &c.

Ch. V. MAN, as it tempers our Appetites to the purposes of human Life. But INTELLECTUAL VIRTUE may be surely called more DIVINE, if we consider the Nature and Sublimity of its End.

INDEED for Moral Virtue, as it is almost wholly conversant about Appetites, and Affections, either to reduce the natural ones to a proper Mean, or totally to expel the unnatural and vitious, it would be impious to suppose THE DEITY to have occasion for such an Habit, or that any work of this kind should call for his attention. Yet God Is, and Lives. we are assured from Scripture it self. What then may we suppose the DIVINE LIFE to be? Not a Life of Sleep, as Fables tell us of Endymion. If we may be allowed then to conjecture with a becoming reverence, what more likely, than APERPETUAL ENERGY OF THE PUREST INTELLECT ABOUT THE FIRST, ALL-COMPREHENSIVE

comprehensive Objects of Intel-Ch. V.
LECTION, WHICH OBJECTS ARE NO
OTHER THAN THAT INTELLECT ITSELF? For in pure Intellection it
holds the reverse of all Sensation, that
THE PERCEIVER AND THING PERCEIVED are ALWAYS ONE AND THE
SAME (e).

Ιτ

⁽e) Ἐι ἔν ἔτως εὖ ἔχει, ὡς ἡμεῖς ποτὶ, ὁ Θεὸς ἀεὶ,
Θαυμας όν ἐι δὲ μᾶλλον, ἔτι Θαυμασιώτερον ἔχει δὲ
ἄδε, κὸ ζωὴ δὲ γε ὑπάρχει ἡ γὰρ Νε ἐνέργεια, ζωή
Ἐκεῖνος δε, ἡ ἐνέργεια ἐνέργεια δὲ ἡ καθ ἀυτὴν, ἐκείνει
ζωὴ ἀρίς η κὸ ἀίδιος. Φαμὲν δὲ τὸν Θεὸν εἶναι ζῶον
ἀίδιον, ἄρις ον ὡς ε ζωὴ κὸ ἀιῶν συνεχὴς κὸ ἀίδιος
ὑπάρχει τῷ Θεῷ ΤΟΥΤΟ γὰρ Ο ΘΕΟΣ. Τῶν
μετὰ τὰ φυσ Λ΄. ζ΄. It is remarkable in Scripture
that God is peculiarly characterized as A LIVING
God, in opposition to all false and imaginary Deities,
of whom some had no pretensions to Life at all; others
to none higher than that of Vegetables or Brutes; and
the best were nothing better than illustrious Men, whose
existence was circumscribed by the short period of Humanity.

IT was Speculation of this kind concerning THE DIVINE NATURE, which induced one of the wisest among the Antients to believe-" That the Man, "who could live in the pure enjoyment " of his Mind, and who properly culti-" vated that divine Principle, was bappiest " in himself, and most beloved by the Gods. "For if the Gods had any regard to "what past among Men (as it appeared "they had) it was probable they should " rejoice in that which was most excellent, " and by nature the most nearly allied to "themselves; and, as this was MIND, " that they should requite the Man, who "most loved and honoured This, both "from his regard to that which was " dear

To the passage above quoted, may be added another, which immediately precedes it. 'Αυτον δε νοεί ο νές κατα μετάληψιν τε νοητε νοητος γαρ γίγεται, 9ιγιά-νων κρ νοων ώςε ΤΑΥΤΟΝ ΝΟΥΣ ΚΑΙ ΝΟΗΤΟΝ.

Book THE SECOND.

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- " dear to themselves, and from his act- Ch. V.
- "ing a Part, which was laudable and

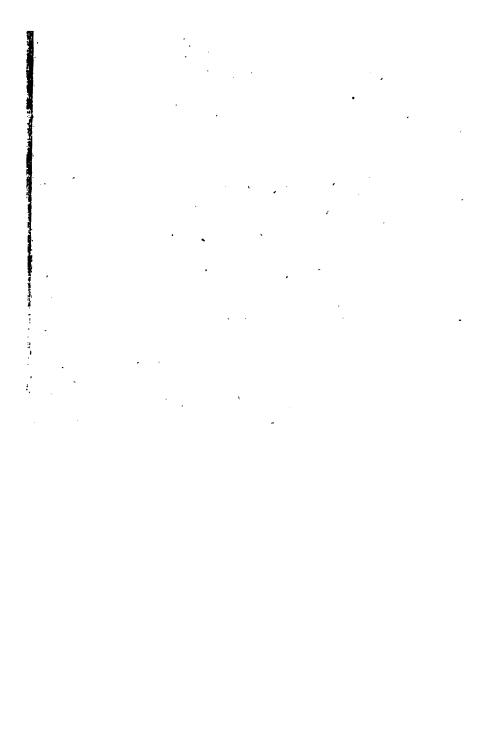
" right (f)."

AND thus in all Science there is fomething valuable for it self, because it contains within it something which is divine.

(f) 'Hoix' Nixomax' to K'. xep. n.

End of the SECOND BOOK.

HER-



HERMES

OR A PHILOSOPHICAL INQUIRY CONCERNING UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR.

воок

CHAP. I.

Introduction-Division of the Subject into ite principal Parts.

TOME things the MIND performs Ch. I. thro' the Body; as for example, the various Works and Energies of Art. Others it performs without such Medium; as for example, when it thinks, and reasons, and concludes. Now tho' the Mind, in either case, may be called the Principle or Source, yet are these last more

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more properly its own peculiar Acts, as being immediately referable to its own innate Powers. And thus is MIND ultimately the Cause of all; of every thing at least that is Fair and Good.

Among those Acts of Mind more immediately its own, that of mental Separation may be well reckoned one. Corporeal Separations, however accurate otherwife, are in one respect incomplete, as they may be repeated without end. The smallest Limb, severed from the smallest Animalcule (if we could suppose any instrument equal to fuch diffection) has still a triple Extension of length, breadth, and thickness; has a figure, a colour, with perhaps many other qualities; and so will continue to have, tho' thus divided to infinity. But (a) the Mind surmounts all power of Concretion.

⁽a) Itaque Naturæ facienda est prorsus Solutio & Separatio; non per Ignem certe, sed per Mentem, tanquam ignem divinum. Bacon. Organ. Lib. II. 16.

manner every Attribute by itself; convex without concave; colour without superficies; superficies without Body; and Body without its Accidents; as distinctly each one, as the they had never been united.

And thus it is that it penetrates into the recesses of all things, not only dividing them, as Wholes, into their more conspicuous Parts, but persisting, till it even separate those Elementary Principles, which, being blended together after a more mysterious manner, are united in the minutest Part, as much as in the mightiest Whole (b).

Now if MATTER and FORM are among these Elements, and deserve perhaps to be esteemed as the principal among them, it may not be foreign to the Design of this Treatise, to seek whether these, or any things analogous to them, may be found in X 2 Speech

⁽b) See below, p. 312.

Ch. I. Speech or Language (c). This therefore we shall attempt after the following method.

EVERY

(c) See before, p. 2. 7. MATTER and FORM (in Greek ΥΛΗ and ΕΙΔΟΣ) were Terms of great import in the days of antient Philosophy, when things were scrutinized rather at their beginning than at their End. They have been but little regarded by modern Philosophy, which almost wholly employs itself about the last order of Substance, that is to say, the tangible, corporeal or concrete, and which acknowledges no separations even in this, but those made by mathematical Instruments or Chemical Process.

The original meaning of the Word TAH, was SYLVA, a WOOD. Thus Homer,

——Τρέμε δ' ἔρεα μακρὰ κὰ ΥΛΗ, Ποσσὶν ὑπ' ἀθανάτοισι Ποσειδάωνος ἰόντος.

As Neptune past, the Mountains and the WOOD Trembled beneath the God's immortal Feet.

Hence as Wood was perhaps the first and most useful kind of Materials, the Word "The, which denoted it, came to be by degrees extended, and at length to denote Matter or Materials in general. In this sense Brass was called the "The or Matter of a Statue; Stone, the "The or Matter of a Pillar; and so in other instances. The Platonic Chalcidius, and other Authors

EVERY thing in a manner, whether Ch. I. natural or artificial, is in its constitution

com-

Authors of the latter Latinity use Sylva under the fame extended and comprehensive Signification.

Now as the Species of Matter here mentioned, (Stone, Metal, Wood, &c.) occur most frequently in common life, and are all nothing more than natural Substances or Bodies, hence by the Vulgar, MATTER and Body have been taken to denote the fame thing; Material to mean Corporeal; Immaterial, Incorporeal, &c. But this was not the Sentiment of Philosophers of old, by whom the Term Matter was seldom used under so narrow an acceptation. By these, every thing was called TAH, or MATTER, whether corporeal or incorporeal, which was capable of becoming something elfe, or of being moulded into something elfe, whether from the operation of Art, of Nature, or a higher Cause.

In this sense they not only called Brass the Tan of 2 Statue, and Timber of a Boat, but Letters and Syllables they called the "Yhai of Words; Words or fimple Terms, the 'Thai of Propositions; and Propofitions themselves the That of Syllogisms. The Stoics held all things out of our own power (τὰ ἐκ ἐφ' ἡμῖν) fuch as Wealth and Poverty, Honour and Dishonour, X_3 Health

Ch. I. compounded of fomething Common, and fomething Peculiar; of fomething Com-

mon.

Health and Sickness, Life and Death, to be the "Yhai, or Materials of Virtue or Moral Goodness, which had its effence in a proper conduct with respect to all these, (Vid. Arr. Epict. L. I. c. 29. Also Vol. the first of these miscellaneous Treatises, p. 187, 309. M. Ant. XII. 29. VII. 29. X. 18, 19. where the Thixor and Airiades are opposed to each other). The Peripatetics, tho' they expressly held the Soul to be ασώματος, or Incorporeal, yet still talked of a NES Things, a material Mind or Intellect. This to modern Ears may posfibly found fomewhat harfhly. Yet if we translate the Words, Natural Capacity, and confider them as only denoting that original and native Power of Intellection, which being previous to all human Knowledge, is yet necessary to its reception; there seems nothing then to remain, that can give us offence. And so much for the Idea of YAH, or MATTER. See Alex. Aphrod. de Anim. p. 144, b. 145. Arist. Metaph. p. 121, 122, 141. Edit. Sylb. Procl. in Euclid. p. 22, 23.

As to EIAOS, its original meaning was that of FORM or FIGURE, considered as denoting visible Symmetry, and Proportion; and hence it had its name from Eidu to see, Beauty of person being one of the noblest, and most excellent Objects of Sight. Thus Euripides,

Πρώτον μέν Είδος άξιον τυραννίδος.
Fair Form to Empire gave the first pretence.

Now

mon, and belonging to many other things; and of something Peculiar, by which it

Ch. I,

is

Now as the Form or Figure of visible Beings tended principally to distinguish them, and to give to each its Name and Essence; hence in a more general sense, whatever of any kind (whether corporeal or incorporeal) was peculiar, effential, and diffinctive, so as by its accession to any Beings, as to its "Yan or Matter, to mark them with a Character, which they had not before, was called by the Antients $EI\Delta O\Sigma$ or Form. Thus not only the Shape given to the Brass was called the Eidos or Form of the Statue; but the Proportion affigned to the Drugs was the Eldos or Form of the Medicine; the orderly Motion of the human Body was the Eidos or Form of the Dance; the just Arrangement of the Propositions, the Eidos or Form of the Syllogism. In like manner the rational and accurate Conduct of a wife and good man, in all the various Relations and Occurrences of life, made that Eldos or Form, described by Cicero to his Son,-FORMAM quidam ipsam, Marce fili, et tanquam faciem Honesti vides: quæ, si oculis cerneretur, mirabiles amores (ut ait Plato) excitaret sapientiæ, &c. De Offic. I.

We may go farther still—THE SUPREME INTEL-LIGENCE, which passes thro' all things, and which is the same to our Capacities, as Light is to our Eyes, X 4 Ch. I. is distinguished, and made to be its true and proper self.

Hence

this supreme Intelligence has been called $EI\Delta O\Sigma$ $EI\Delta\Omega N$, the Form of Forms, as being the Fountain of all Symmetry, of all Good, and of all Truth; and as imparting to every Being those effential and distinctive Attributes, which make it to be itself, and not any thing else.

And so much concerning FORM, as before concern-We shall only add, that it is in ing Matter. the uniting of these, that every thing generable begins to exist; in their separating, to perish, and be at ar end—that while the two co-exist, they co-exist not by juxta-position, like the stones in a wall, but by a more intimate Co-incidence, complete in the minutest part-that hence, if we were to persist in dividing any fubstance (for example Marble) to infinity, there would still remain after every section both Matter and Form, and these as perfectly united, as before the Division began—lastly, that they are both pre-existent to the Beings, which they constitute; the Matter being to be found in the world at large; the Form, if artificial, pre-existing within the Artificer, or if natural, within the fupreme Cause, the Sovereign Artist of the Universe,

—Pulchrum pulcherrimus ipse Mundum mente gerens, similique in imagine formans.

Even

Ch.I.

Hence Language, if compared according to this notion to the murmurs of a Foun-

Even without speculating so high as this, we may see among all animal and vegetable Substances, the Form pre-existing in their immediate generating Cause; Oak being the parent of Oak, Lion of Lion, Man of Man, &c.

Cicero's account of these Principles is as follows.

MATTER.

Sed subjectam putant omnibus sine ulla specie, atque carentem omni illa qualitate (faciamus enim tractando usitatius hoc verbum et tritius) MATERIAM quandam, ex que omnia expressa atque efficta sint: (quæ tota omnia accipere possit, omnibusque modis mutari atque ex omni parte) eòque etiam interire, non in nihilum, &c. Acad. I. 8.

FORM.

Sed ego sic statuo, nihil esse in ullo genere-tam pulchrum, quo non pulchrius id sit, unde illud, ut ex ore aliquo, quasi imago, exprimatur, quod neque oculis, neque auribus, neque ullo sensu percipi potest: cogitatione tantùm et mente complectimur.—HAS RERUM FORMAS appellat Ideas ille non intelligendi solum, sed etiam dicendi gravissimus auctor et magister, Plato: casque gigni negat, et ait semper esse, ac ratione et intelligentià contineri: cætera nasci, occidere, suere, labi; nec diutiùs esse uno et eodem statu. Quidquid

a Fountain, or the dashings of a Cataract, Ch. I. has in common this, that like them, it is a Sound. But then on the contrary it has in peculiar this, that whereas those Sounds have no Meaning or Signification, to Language a Meaning or Signification is essential. Again, Language, if compared to the Voice of irrational Animals, has in common this, that like them, it has a But then it has this in peculiar Meaning. to distinguish it from them, that whereas the Meaning of those Animal Sounds is derived from NATURE, that of Language is derived, not from Nature, but from

FROM

COMPACT (d).

est igitur, de quo ratione et vià disputetur, id est ad ultimam sui generis Formam specienque redigendum. Cic. ad M. Brut. Orat.

⁽d) The Peripatetics (and with just reason) in all their definitions as well of Words as of Sentences, made it a part of their character to be significant κατά συνθήκην, by Compact. See Aristot. de Interp. c. 2. 4. Boethius translates the Words κατά συνθήκην, ad placi-

FROM hence it becomes evident, that LANGUAGE, taken in the most comprehensive view, implies certain Sounds, baving certain Meanings; and that of these two Principles, the Sound is as the MATTER, common (like other Matter) to many different things; the MEANING as that peculiar and characteristic FORM, by which the Nature or Essence of Language becomes complete.

tum, or secundum placitum, and thus explains them in his comment—Secundum Placitum vero est, quod secundum quandam positionem, placitumque ponemis aptatur; nullum enim nomen naturaliter constitutum est, neque unquam, sicut subjecta res à natura est, ita quoque a natura veniente vocabulo nuncupatur. Sed hominum genus, quod et ratione, et oratione vigeret, nomina posuit, eaque quibus libuit, literis syllabisque conjungens, singulis subjectarum rerum substantiis dedit, Boeth. in Lib. de Interpret. p. 308.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

Upon the Matter, or common Subject of Language.

Ch. II.

GUAGE comes first to be considered, a Subject, which Order will not suffer us to omit, but in which we shall endeavour to be as concise as we can. Now this TAH or Matter is Sound, and Sound is that Sensation peculiar to the Sense of Hearing, when the Air hath felt a Percussion, adequate to the producing such Effect (a).

- As

The following account of the Stoics, which refers the cause of Sound to an Undulation in the Air propagated circularly, as when we drop a stone into a Cistern of water, seems to accord with the modern Hypothesis,

⁽a) This appears to be Priscian's Meaning when he says of a Voice, what is more properly true of Sound in general, that it is—suum sensibile aurium, id est, qued proprie auribus accidit. Lib. I. p. 537.

As the Causes of this Percussion are Ch. II. various, so from hence Sound derives the Variety of its Species.

FARTHER, as all these Causes are either Animale or Inanimate, so the two grand Species of Sounds are likewise Animale or Inanimate.

THERE is no peculiar Name for Sound Inanimate; nor even for that of Animals, when made by the trampling of their Feet, the fluttering of their Wings, or any other Cause, which is merely accidental. But that,

and to be as plausible as any—'Ακούειν δὲ, τε μεταξῦ τε τε φωνοῦντος κὰ τε ἀκέοντος ἀέρος ωλητίομένε σφαιροειδῶς, ἔιτα κυματουμένε, κὰ ταῖς ἀκοαῖς προσπίπιοντος, ὡς κυματεται τὸ ἐν τῆ δεξαμενῆ ῦδωρ κατα κύκλους ὑπὸ τε ἐμβληθέντος λίθε—Porrò audire, cum is, qui medius inter loquentem, et audientem est, aer verberatur orbiculariter, deinde agitatus auribus instuit, quemadmodum et eisternæ aqua per orbes injecto agitatur lapide. Diog. Laert. VII.

HERMES.

Ch. II. that, which they make by proper Organs, in consequence of some Sensation or inward Impulse, such Animal Sound is called a Voice.

As Language therefore implies that Sound called Human Voice; we may perceive that to know the Nature and Powers of the Human Voice, is in fact to know the Matter or common Subject of Language.

Now the Voice of Man, and it should seem of all other Animals, is formed by certain Organs between the Mouth and the Lungs, and which Organs maintain the intercourse between these two. The Lungs surnish Air, out of which the Voice is formed; and the Mouth, when the Voice is formed, serves to publish it abroad.

WHAT these Vocal Organs precisely are, is not in all respects agreed by Philofophers fophers and Anatomists. Be this as it Ch. II. will, it is certain that the mere primary and fimple Voice is completely formed, before ever it reach the Mouth, and can therefore (as well as Breathing) find a Passage thro' the Nose, when the Mouth is so far stopt, as to prevent the least utterance.

Now pure and fimple Voice, being thus produced, is (as before was observed) transmitted to the Mouth. HERE then, by means of certain different Organs, which do not change its primary Qualities, but only superadd others, it receives the Form or Character of ARTICULATION. ARTICULATION is in fact nothing else, than that Form or Character, acquired to fimple Voice, by means of the Mouth and its several Organs, the Teeth, the Tongue, the Lips, &c. The Voice is not by Articulation made more grave or acute, more loud or foft (which are its primary Qualities) but it acquires to these Characters certain

Ch. II. certain others additional, which are perfectly adapted to exist along with them (b):

THE

(b) The feveral Organs above mentioned not only ferve the purposes of *Speech*, but those very different ones likewise of *Massication* and *Respiration*; so frugal is Nature in thus assigning them double duty, and so careful to maintain her character of doing nothing in vain.

He, that would be informed, how much better the Parts here mentioned are framed for Discourse in Man, who is a Discursive Animal, than they are in other Animals, who are not so, may consult Aristotle in his Treatise de Animal. Part. Lib. II. c. 17. Lib. III. c. 1. 3. De Animâ. L. II. c. 8. § 23, &c.

And here by the way, if such Inquirer be of a Genius truly modern, he may possibly wonder how the Philofopher, considering (as it is modestly phrased) the Age in which he lived, should know so much, and reason so well. But if he have any taste or value for antient literature, he may with much juster cause wonder at the Vanity of his Contemporaries, who dream all Philosophy to be the Invention of their own Age, knowing nothing of those Antients still remaining for their perusal, tho' they are so ready on every occasion to give the preference to themselves.

The following account from Ammonius will shew whence the Notions in this chapter are taken, and what

BOOK THE THIRD.



THE fimplest of these new Characters Ch. II. are those acquired thro' the mere Openings

of

what authority we have to distinguish Voice from mere Sound; and ARTICULATE VOICE from SIM-PLE VOICE.

Καὶ ΨΟΦΟΣ μεν έςι ωληγη αέρος αίσθητη ακοή. ΦΩΝΗ δὶ, ψόφος ἰξ ἰμψυχε γινόμενος, ὅταν δια τῆς συςολής τε θώρακος έκθλιδόμενος από τε συεύμονος δ είσπνευθείς αὐρ σεροσπίπη αθρόως τη καλεμένη τραχεία άρτηρία, η τη ύπερώα, ήτοι τῷ γαργαρεώνι, હैंकि रमें अभिमूर्में बेम जरहरे में राज्य में χου αίσθητου, κατα τινα όρμην της ψυχής. όπες έμ) των έμωνευςων απρά τοις μεσικοίς καλεμένων όργανων συμβαίνει, διον αύλων אם שעוניץ שוי דחה אשרוחה, אם דשי וללטידשי, אם אנוλίων ωρός μεν ΤΗΝ ΔΙΑΛΕΚΤΟΝ αναγκαίων όντων, **ΤΡΟ ΤΗΝ ΑΠΛΩΣ ΦΩΝΗΝ ε πάντως συμ-**Callopéror. — Estque Sonus, ictus aeris qui auditu sentitur: Vox autum est sonus, quem animans edit, cum per thoracis compressionem aer attractus a pulmone, elisus simul sotus in arteriam, quam afperam vocant, et palatum, aut gurgulionem impingit, et ex i&u sonum quendam sensibilem pro animi quodam impetu perficit. Id qued in instrumentis quæ quia inflant, ide έμπνευςα a musicis dicuntur, usu venit, ut in tibiis, ac fiftulis contingit, cum lingua, dentes, labiaque ad loquelam necessaria sint, ad vocem vero simplicem non omnine conferant. Ammon. in Lib. de Intepr. p. 25. b. Vid. etiam Boerhaaye Institut. Medic. Sect. **626.630.**

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It

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Ch.II.

of the Mouth, as these Openings differ in giving the Voice a Passage. It is the Variety of Configurations in these Openings only, which gives birth and origin to the several Vowels; and hence it is they derive their Name, by being thus eminently Vocal (c), and easy to be sounded of them-selves alone.

THERE are other articulate Forms, which the Mouth makes not by mere Openings, but by different Contacts of its different parts; such for instance, as it makes by the Junction of the two Lips, of the Tongue with

It appears that the Stoics (contrary to the notion of the Peripatetics) used the word ΦΩNH to denote Sound in general. They defined it therefore to be—To idion aironnov axons, which justifies the definition given by Priscian, in the Note preceding. Animal Sound they defined to be—'Anp, ὑπὸ ὁρμῆς ωεπληγμένος, Air struck (and so made audible) by some animal impulse; and Human or Rational Sound they defined—'Εναρθρος κὸ ἀπὸ διανόιας ἐκπεμπομένη, Sound articulate and derived from the discursive faculty. Diog. Laert. VII. 55.

^{· (}c) PONHENTA.

with the Teeth, of the Tongue with the Ch.II. Palate, and the like.

Now as all these several Contacts, unless some Opening of the Mouth either immediately precede, or immediately sollow, would rather occasion Silence, than to produce a Voice; hence it is, that with some such Opening, either previous or subsequent, they are always connected. Hence also it is, that the Articulations so produced are called Consonant, because they sound not of themselves, and from their own powers, but at all times in company with some auxiliary Vowel (d).

THERE are other subordinate Distinctions of these primary Articulations, which to enumerate would be foreign to the design of this Treatise.

IT is enough to observe, that they are all denoted by the common Name of ELE-

Y

MENT

⁽d) ΣΥΜΦΩΝΑ.

Ch.II.

MENT (e), in as much as every Articulation of every other kind is from them derived, and into them resolved. Under their smallest Combination they produce a Syllable; Syllables properly combined produce a Word; Words properly combined produce a Sentence; and Sentences properly combined produce an Oration or Discourse.

AND thus it is that to Principles apparently fo trivial (f), as about twenty plain ele-

(f) The Egyptians paid divine Honours to the Inventor of Letters, and Regulater of Language, whom they

⁽e) The Stoic Definition of an Element is as follows—E51 δε 501χεῖον, ἐξ οῦ ωρώτε γίνεται τὰ γινόμενα, κὰ εἰς ὁ ἔσχατον ἀναλύεται. An Element is that, out of which, as their first Principle, things generated are made, and into which, as their last remains, they are resolved. Diog. Laert. VII. 176. What Aristotle says upon Elements with respect to the Subject here treated, is worth attending to—Φωνῆς 501χεῖα, ἐξ ὧν σύγκειται ἡ φωνὴ, κὰ εἰς ὰ διαιρεῖται ἔσχατα ἐκεῖνα δὲ μηκέτ εἰς ἄλλας φωνὰς ἐτέρας τῷ ἔιδει ἀυτῶν. The Elements of Articulate Voice are those things, out of which the Voice is compounded, and into which, as its last remains, it is divided: the Elements themselves being no farther divisible into other articulate Voices, differing in Species from them. Metaph. V. c. 3.

elementary Sounds, we owe that variety Ch. II. of articulate Voices, which have been sufficient to explain the Sentiments of so innumerable a Multitude, as all the present and past Generations of Men.

Iт

they called THEUTH. By the GREEKS he was worshipped under the Name of HERMES, and represented commonly by a *Head alone without other Limbs*, standing upon a quadrilateral Basis. The Head itself was that of a beautiful Youth, having on it a Petasus, or Bonnet, adorned with two Wings.

There was a peculiar reference in this Figure to the EPMHE AOFIOE, THE HERMES OF LANGUAGE OR DISCOURSE. He possessed no other part of the human figure but the HEAD, because no other was deemed requisite to rational Communication. Words at the same time, the medium of this Communication, being (as Homer well describes them) Ener well-epositra, Winged Words, were represented in their Velocity by the Wings of his Bonnet.

Let us suppose such a Hermes, having the Front of his Basis (the usual place for Inscriptions) adorned with some old Alphabet, and having a Veil stung across, by which that Alphabet is partly covered. Let A Youth be seen drawing off this Veil; and A Nymph, near the Youth, transcribing what She there discovers.

Such a Defign would eafily indicate its Meaning. THE YOUTH WE might imagine to be THE GENLUS

Ch. II. It appears from what has been faid, that THE MATTER OF COMMON SUB-JECT OF LANGUAGE IS that Species of Sounds called Voices Articulate.

WHAT

OF MAN (Nature Deus bumanæ, as Horace stiles him;)
THE NYMPH to be MNHMOΣΤΝΗ, or MEMORY; as much as to infinuate that "MAN, for the "Preservation of his Deeds and Inventions, was necesarily obliged to have recourse to Letters; and that "Memory, being conscious of her own Insufficiency, was glad to avail herself of so valuable an Acquisition."

MR. STUART, well known for his accurate and elegant Edition of the Antiquities of Athens, has adorned this Work with a Frontispiece agreeable to the above Ideas, and that in a taste truly Attic and Simple, which no one possesses more eminently than himself.

As to HERMES, his History, Genealogy, Mythology, Figure, &c. Vid. Platon. Phileb. T. II. p. 18. Edit. Serran. Diod. Sic. L. I. Horat. Od. X. L. 1. Hesiod. Theog. V. 937. cum Comment. Joan. Diaconi. Thycid. VI. 27. et Scholiast. in loc. Pighium apud Gronov. Thesaur. T. IX. p. 1164.

For the value and importance of Principles, and the difficulty in attaining them, see Aristot. de Sophist. Elench. 5, 34.

THE THERD. Baok

WHAT remains to be examined in the Ch. II. following Chapter, is Language under its characteristic and peculiar FORM, that is to fay, Language confidered, not with respect to Sound, but to Meaning.

The following Passage, taken from that able Mathematician Tacquet, will be found peculiarly pertinent to what has been faid in this chapter concerning Ekmentary Sounds, p. 324, 325.

Mille milliones scriptorum mille annorum millionibus non scribent omnes 24 litterarum alphabeti permutationes, licet singuli quotidiè absolverent 40 paginas, quarum unaquaque contineret diversos ordines litterarum 24. Tacquet Arithmetica Theor. p. 381. Edit. Antverp. 1663.

> CHAP. Y 4

CHAP III.

Upon the Form, or peculiar Character of Language.

Ch.III. WHEN to any articulate Voice there accedes by compact a Meaning or Signification, such Voice by such accession is then called A WORD; and many Words, possessing their Significations (as it were) under the same Compact (a), unite in constituting A PARTICULAR LANGUAGE.

IT

⁽a) See before Note (c) p. 314. See also Vol. I. Treatise II. c. 1. Notes (a) and (c).

The following Quotation from Anmonius is remarkable—Καθάπερ Εν το μέν κατα τόπον κινεισθαι, φύσει, το δὲ ορχεισθαι, θέσει κὰ κατα συνθήκην, κὰ το μὲν ξύλου, φύσει, ἡ δὲ θύρα, θέσει Ετω κὰ το μὲν φωνεῖν, φύσει, το δὲ δὶ ὀνομάτων ἢ ἐρμάτων σημαίνειν, θέσει—κὰ ἔοικε την μὲν φωνητικήν δύναμιν, ἄργαναν ἔσαν τῶν ψυχικῶν ἐν ἡμῖν δυνάμεων γνωςικῶν, ἢ ὀρεκίικῶν, κατα ψύσιν ἔχειν ὁ ἄνθρωπ Θο παραπλησίως τοῖς ἀλόγοις ζώσες.

IT appears from hence, that A WORD Ch.III. may be defined a Voice articulate, and fignificant by Compact—and that LANGUAGE may be defined a System of such Voices, so significant.

IT is from notions like these concerning Language and Words, that one may be

ζώοις τὸ δε ὀνόμασιν, ἢ ῥήμασιν, ἢ τοῖς ἐκ τέτων συγκειμένοις λόγοις χρησθαι ωρός την σημασίαν (εκέτ**ι** φύσει έσιν, αλλα θέσει) έξαίρετον έχειν ωρός τα άλογα ζωα, διότι κ μόνο των θυλτων αυτοκινήτα μετέχει ψυχης, κ τέχνικώς ένεργείν δυναμένης, ίνα κ έν สบรตุ รตุ อุดทะเง ที่ ระสงเหล สบรทีร อีเลนอุเทศรา อีบทลุนเรื่อ δηλάσι δε ταυτα οί είς κάλλο συντιθέμενοι λόγοι μετὰ μέτρων, ἢ ἄνευ μέτρων. 'In the same manner therefore, as local Motion is from Nature, but Dancing is something pestive; and as Timber exists in Nature, but a Door is something positive; so is the power of producing a vocal Sound founded in Nature, but that of explaining ourfelves by Nouns, or Verbs, something positive. And hence it is, that as to the simple power of producing vocal Sound (which is as it were the Organ or Instrument to the Soul's faculties of Knowledge or Volition) as to this vocal power I say, Man seems to possess it from Nature, in like manner as irraCh.III. be tempted to call LANGUAGE a kind of PICTURE OF THE UNIVERSE, where the Words are as the Figures or Images of all particulars.

AND yet it may be doubted, how far this is true. For if *Pictures* and *Images* are all of them *Imitations*, it will follow, that whoever has natural faculties to know the

irrational animals: but as to the employing of Nouns, or Verbs, or Sentences composed out of them, in the explanation of our Sentiments (the thing thus employed being founded not in Nature, but in Position) this he seems to possess by way of peculiar eminence, because he alone of all mortal Beings partakes of a Soul, which can move itself, and operate artificially; so that even in the Subject of Sound his artificial Power shews itself; as the various elegant Compositions both in Metre, and unthout Metre, abundantly prove. Ammon, de Interpr. p. 51. 2.

It must be observed, that the operating artificially, (ivegyeiv τεχνικώς) of which Ammonius here speaks, and which he considers as a distinctive Mark peculiar to the Human Soul, means something very different from the mere producing works of elegance and design; else it could never be a mark of Distinction between Man, and many other Species of Animals, such as the Bee, the Beaver, the Swallow, &c. See Vol. I. p. 8, 9, 10. 158, 159, w.c.

the Original, will by help of the same Ch.III. faculties know also its Imitations. But it by no means follows, that he who knows any Being, should know for that reason its Greek or Latin Name.

THE Truth is, that every Medium through which we exhibit any thing to another's Contemplation, is either derived from Natural Attributes, and then it is an IMITATION; or else from Accidents quite arbitrary, and then it is a SYMBOL (b).

Now.

⁽δ) Διαφέρει δὶ τὸ ΟΜΟΙΩΜΑ τὰ ΣΥΜΒΟΛΟΥ, καθόσον τὸ μὶν ὁμοίωμα την φύσιν ἀυτην τὰ

πράγματος κατὰ τὸ δυνατὸν ἀπεικονίζεσθαι βάλεται,

κὰ ἔςιν ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἀυτὸ μεταπλάσαι τὸ γὰρ ἐν τῆ

εἰκόνι γεγραμμένα τὰ Σωκράτας ὁμοίωμα, ἐι μη κὰ τὸ

φαλακρὸν, κὰ τὸ σιμὸν, κὰ τὸ ἐξώφθαλμον ἔχει τὰ

Σωκράτας, ἐκέτ' ἀν ἀυτὰ λέγοιτο εἶναι ὁμοίωμα τὸ

σοφω ἀυτὸ ὀνομάζει) τὸ ὅλον ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἔχει, ἄτε κὰ

πότε δεῖ συμβάλλειν ἀλλήλοις τὰς πολεμάντας, δύ
ναται

Ch.III. Now, if it be allowed that in far the greater part of things, not any of their natural Attributes are to be found in articulate Voices, and that yet through such Voices things of every kind are exhibited, it will follow that Words must of necessity be Symbols, because it appears that they cannot be Imitations.

But here occurs a Question, which deferves attention—" Why, in the common intercourse of men with men, have Imitations been neglected, and Symbols "pre-

υαται σύμβολου ξίναι ης σάλπιγίος απήχησις, ης Ααμπάδος ρίψις, καθάπερ φησίν Ευριπίδης,

^{&#}x27;Επεὶ δ' ἀφείθη ωυρσος, ὡς τυρσηνικής Σάλπιγίος ἦχος, σῆμα φοινίου μάχης.

Δύναται δέ τις υποθέσθαι ης δόρατ ος ανάτασιν, ης βίλες άφεσιν, ης αλλά μυρία.—Α REPRESENTATION
or RESEMBLANCE differs from a SYMBOL, in as much as
the Refemblance aims as far as possible to represent the
very nature of the thing, nor is it in our power to shift or
vary it. Thus a REPRESENTATION intended for Socrates in a Picture, if i bave not those circumstances geculiar

" preferred, although Symbols are only Ch.III. "known by Habit or Institution, while "Imitations are recognized by a kind of "natural Intuition?"—To this it may be answered, that if the Sentiments of the Mind, like the Features of the Face, were immediately visible to every beholder, the Art of Speech or Discourse would have been perfectly superstuous. But now, while our Minds lie inveloped and hid, and the Body (like a Veil) conceals every thing but itself, we are necessarily compelled, when we communicate our Thoughts,

to

culiar to Socrates, the bald, the flat-nosed, and the Eyes projecting, cannot properly be called a Representation of him. But a SYMBOL or SIGN (for the Philosopher Aristotle uses both names) is wholly in our own power, as depending singly for its existence on our imagination. Thus for example, as to the time when two armies should engage, the Symbol or Sign may be the sounding of a Trumpet, the throwing of a Torch, (according to what Euripides says,

But when the flaming Torch was burl'd, the fign Of purple fight, as when the Trumpet founds, &cc.) or else one may suppose the elevating of a Spear, the darting of a Weapon, and a thousand ways besides. Ammon. in Lib. de Interp. p. 17. b. Ch.III. to convey them to each other through a Medium which is corporeal (c). And hence it is that all Signs, Marks, Imitations, and Symbols must needs be fensible, and addressed as such to the Senses (d). Now the Senses, we know, never exceed their natural Limits; the Eye perceives no Sounds; the Ear perceives no Figures nor Colours. If therefore we were to converse, not by Symbols but by Imitations, as far as things are characterized by Figure

⁽c) Αι ψυχαι αι υμέτεραι, γυμναι μεν έσαι των σωμάτων, πδύναντο δι' αυτών των νοημάτων σημαίνειν αλλήλαις τα ωράγματα 'Επειδη δε σώμασι συνδέδενται, δίκην νέφες ωτρικαλύπθεσιν αυτών το νοτρον, εδεήθησαν των δνομάτων, δι' ων σημαίνεσιν αλλήλαις τα ωράγματα. Animi nostri a corporis compage secreti res vicissim animi conceptionibus significare possent: cum autem corporibus involuti sint, perinde ac nebula, ipsorum intelligendi vis obtegitur: quocirca opus eis suit nominibus, quibus res inter se significarent. Ammon. in Prædicam. p. 18. 2.

⁽d) Quicquid scindi possit in differentias satis numerosas, ad notionum varietatem explicandam (modo differentiæ illæ sensui perceptibiles sint) sieri potest vehiculum cogitationum de homine in hominem. Bacon. de Augun. Scient. VI, 1.

gure and Colour, our Imitation would be Ch.III., necessarily thro' Figure and Colour also.

Again, as far as they are characterized by Sounds, it would for the same reason be thro' the Medium of Sounds. The like may be said of all the other Senses, the Imitation still shifting along with the Objects imitated. We see then how complicated such Imitation would prove.

If we set Language therefore, as a Symbol, in opposition to such Imitation; if we restect on the Simplicity of the one, and the Multiplicity of the other; if we consider the Ease and Speed, with which Words are formed (an Ease which knows no trouble or fatigue; and a * Speed, which equals the Progress of our very Thoughts) if we oppose to this the difficulty and length of Imitations; if we remember that some Objects are capable of no Imitations at all, but that all Objects universally may be typisted by Symbols; we may plainly

ETER TEPOÉNTA - See before, p. 325.

Ch.III. plainly perceive an Answer to the Queftion here proposed, "Why, in the com-"mon intercourse of men with men.

"Imitations have been rejected, and

Symbols preferred."

HENCE too we may perceive a Reason; why there never was a Language, nor indeed can possibly be framed one, to express the Properties and real Essences of things, as a Mirrour exhibits their Figures and For if Language of itself their Colours. imply nothing more, than certain Species of Sounds with certain Motions concomitant; if to some Beings Sound and Motion are no Attributes at all; if to many others, where Attributes, they are no way essential (fuch as the Murmurs and Wavings of a Tree during a storm) if this be trueit is impossible the Nature of such Beings should be expressed, or the least essential Property be any way imitated, while between the Medium and themselves there is nothing CONNATURAL (e).

IT

⁽e) See Vol. I. Treatise II. c. 3. p. 70.

IT is true indeed, when Primitives were Ch. III. once established, it was easy to follow the Connection and Subordination of Nature, in the just deduction of Derivatives and Thus the Sounds, Water, Compounds. and, Fire, being once annexed to those two Elements, it was certainly more natural to call Beings participating of the first, Watry, of the last, Fiery, than to commute the Terms, and call them by the reverse. But why, and from what natural Connections the Primitives themselves might not be commuted, it will be found, I believe, difficult to affign a Reason, as well in the instances before us, as in most others. We may here also see the Reason. why all Language is founded in COMPACT, and not in Nature; for so are all Symbols, of which Words are a certain Species.

THE Question remains if Words are Symbols, then SYMBOLS OF WHAT?—

Z

If

Ch.III. If it be answered, of things, the Queficion returns, of what Things?—If it be answered, of the several Individuals of Sense, the various particular Beings, which exist around us—to this, it is replied, may be raised certain Doubts. In the first place every Word will be in sacra proper Name. Now if all Words are proper Names, how came Lexicographers, whose express business is to explain Words, either wholly to omit proper Names, or at least to explain them, not from their own Art, but from History?

AGAIN, if all Words are proper Names, then in strictness no Word can belong to more than one Individual. But if so, then, as Individuals are infinite, to make a perfect Language, Words must be infinite also. But if infinite, then incomprehensible, and never to be attained by the wisest Men; whose labours in Language upon this Hypothesis would be as idle as that study of infinite written Symbols, which Mission-

Missionaries (if they may be credited) at- Ch.III. tribute to the Chinese.

AGAIN, if all Words are proper Names, or (which is the same) the Symbols of Individuals; it will follow, as Individuals are not only infinite, but ever passing, that the Language of those, who lived ages ago, will be as unknown now, as the very Voices of the Speakers. Nay the Language of every Province, of every Town, of every Cottage, must be every where different, and every where changing, since such is the Nature of Individuals, which it follows.

AGAIN, if all Words are proper Names, the Symbols of Individuals, it will follow that in Language there can be no general Proposition, because upon the Hypothesis all Terms are particular; nor any Affirmative Proposition, because no one Individual in nature is another. It remains, there can be no Propositions, but Particular Nega-

Ch.III. tives. But if so, then is Language incapable of communicating General Affirmative Truths—If so, then of communicating Demonstration—If so, then of communicating Sciences, which are so many Systems of Demonstrations—If so, then of communicating Arts, which are the Theorems of Science applied practically—If so, we shall be little better for it either in Speculation or in Practice (e). And so much for this Hypothesis; let us now try another.

IF Words are not the Symbols of external Particulars, it follows of course, they must be THE SYMBOLS OF OUR IDEAS: For this is evident, if they are not Symbols

⁽c) The whole of Euclid (whose Elements may be called the basis of Mathematical Science) is founded upon general Terms, and general Propositions, most of which are affirmative. So true are those Verses, however barbarous as to their stile,

Syllogizari non est ex Particulari, Neve Negativis, restè concludere si vis.

Symbols of things without, they can only Ch.III. be Symbols of fomething within.

HERE then the Question recurs, if SYMBOLS OF IDEAS, then of WHAT IDEAS?-OF SENSIBLE IDEAS.-Be it fo, and what follows?—Every thing in fact, which has followed already from the supposition of their being the Symbols of external Particulars; and that from this plain and obvious reason, because the several Ideas, which Particulars imprint, must needs be as infinite and mutable, as they are themselves.

IF then Words are neither the Symbols of external Particulars, nor yet of particular Ideas, they can be SYMBOLS of nothing else, except of GENERAL IDEAS, because nothing else, except these, remains.—And what do we mean by GE-NERAL IDEAS?—We mean such as ARE COMMON TO MANY INDIVIDUALS: not only to Individuals which exist now, but

Ch.III. but which existed in ages past, and will exist in ages future; such for example, as the Ideas belonging to the Words, Man, Lion, Cedar.—Admit it, and what follows?—It follows, that if Words are the Symbols of such general Ideas, Lexicographers may find employ, though they meddle not with proper Names.

IT follows that one Word may be, not bomonymously, but truly and essentially common to many Particulars, past present and suture; so that however these Particulars may be infinite, and ever seeting, yet Language notwithstanding may be definite and steady. But if so, then attainable even by ordinary Capacities, without danger of incurring the Chinese Absurdity *.

AGAIN, it follows that the Language of those, who lived ages ago, as far as it stands

^{*} See p. 338, 339.

stands for the same general Ideas, may be as Ch.III. intelligible now, as it was then. The like may be said of the same Language being accommodated to distant Regions, and even to distant Nations, amidst all the variety of ever new and ever changing Objects.

AGAIN, it follows that Language may be expressive of general Truths; and if so, then of Demonstration, and Sciences, and Arts; and if so, become subservient to purposes of every kind (f).

Now if it be true "that none of these "things could be afferted of Language, "were not Words the Symbols of general "Ideas—and it be further true, that these "things may be all undeniably afferted of Language"—it will follow (and that necessarily) that Words are the Symbols of General Ideas.

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And

⁽f) See before Note (e).

Ch.III.

And yet perhaps even here may be an Objection. It may be urged, if Words are the Symbols of general Ideas, Language may answer well enough the purpose of Philosophers, who reason about general, and abstract Subjects—but what becomes of the business of ordinary Life? Life we know is merged in a multitude of Particulars, where an Explanation by Language is as requisite, as in the highest Theorems. The Vulgar indeed want it to no other End. How then can this End in any respect be answered, if Language be expressive of nothing farther than general Ideas?

To this it may be answered, that Arts surely respect the business of ordinary Life; yet so far are general Terms from being an Obstacle here, that without them no Art can be rationally explained. How for instance should the measuring Artist ascertain to the Reapers the price of their labours, had not he first through general Terms

Terms learnt those general Theorems, that Ch.III. respect the doctrine and practice of Mensuration?

Bur suppose this not to satisfy a persevering Objector-suppose him to insist, that, admitting this to be true, there were fill a multitude of occasions for minute particularizing, of which it was not possible for mere Generals to be susceptible—suppose, I say, such an Objection, what should we answer? That the Objection was just; that it was necessary to the Perfection and Completion of LANGUAGE, that it should be expressive of PARTICULARS, as well as of GENERALS. We must however add, that its general Terms are by far its most excellent and essential Part, fince from these it derives "that com-" prehensive Universality, that just pro-" portion of Precision and Permanence, "without which it could not possibly " be either learnt, or understood, or ap-" plied to the purposes of Reasoning and " Science;"

Ch.III. "Science;"—that particular Terms have their Utility and End, and that therefore care too has been taken for a supply of these.

ONE Method of expressing Particulars, is that of Proper Names. This is the least artificial, because proper Names being in every district arbitrarily applied, may be unknown to those, who know the Language perfectly well, and can hardly therefore with propriety be confidered as parts of it. The other and more artificial Method is that of Definitives or Ar-TICLES (g), whether we assume the pronominal, or those more strictly so called. And here we cannot enough admire the exquisite Art of Language, which, without wandering into infinitude, contrives how to denote things infinite; that is to say in other words, which, by the small Tribe of Definitives properly applied to general

⁽g) See before, p. 72, &c. 233, &c.

Terms, knows how to employ these last, Ch.III. tho' in number finite, to the accurate expression of infinite Particulars.

To explain what has been faid by a fingle example. Let the general Term be MAN. I have occasion to apply this Term to the denoting of some Particular. Let it be required to express this Particular, as unknown; I say, A Man-known; I say, THE Man-indefinite; ANY Man-definite; A CERTAIN Man-present and near; THIS Man-present and distant; THAT Manlike to some other; such a Mun-an indefinite Multitude; MANY Men-a definite Multitude; A THOUSAND Men-the ones of a Multitude, taken throughout; EVERY Man-the same ones, taken with distinction; EACH Man-taken in order; FIRST Man, SECOND Man, &c. - the whole Multitude of Particulars taken collectively; ALL Men -the Negation of this Multitude; NO Man. But of this we have spoken already, when we inquired concerning Definitives.

Ch.III. The Sum of all is, that Words are the Symbols of Ideas both general and particular; yet of the general, primarily, essentially, and immediately; of the particular, only secondarily, accidentally, and mediately.

"guage this double Capacity?"—May we not ask, by way of return, Is it not a kind of reciprocal Commerce, or Intercourse of our Ideas? Should it not therefore be framed, so as to express the whole of our Perception? Now can we call that Perception intire and whole, which implies either Intellection without Sensation, or Sensation without Intellection? If not, how should Language explain the whole of our Perception, had it not Words to express the Objects, proper to each of the two Faculties?

To conclude—As in the preceding Ch.III. Chapter we confidered Language with a view to its MATTER, so here we have confidered it with a view to its Form. Its MATTER is recognized, when it is confidered as a Voice; its Form, as it is fignificant of our several Ideas; so that upon the whole it may be defined—A System of Articulate Voices, the Symbols of our Ideas, but of those principally, which are general or universal.

CHAP.

CHAP. IV.

Concerning general or universal Ideas.

UCH having been said in the preceding Chapter about GENERAL OR UNIVERSAL IDEAS, it may not perhaps be amiss to inquire, by what process we come to perceive them, and what kind of Beings they are; since the generality of men think so meanly of their existence, that they are commonly considered, as little better than Shadows. These Sentiments are not unusual even with the Philosopher now a days, and that from causes much the same with those, which influence the Vulgar.

THE VULGAR merged in Sense from their earliest Infancy, and never once dreaming any thing to be worthy of pursuit, but what either pampers their Appetite, or fills their Purse, imagine nothing

to be real, but what may be tasted, or Ch.IV. touched. THE PHILOSOPHER, as to these matters being of much the same Opinion, in Philosophy looks no higher, than to experimental Amusements, deeming nothing Demonstration, if it be not made ocular. Thus instead of ascending from Sense to Intellect (the natural progress of all true Learning) he hurries on the contrary into the midst of Sense, where he wanders at random without any end, and is lost in a Labyrinth of infinite Particulars. then the reason why the sublimer parts of Science, the Studies of MIND, INTELLEGA TION, and INTELLIGENT PRINCIPLES. are in a manner neglected; and, as if the Criterion of all Truth were an Alembic or an Air-pump, what cannot be proved by Experiment, is deemed no better than mere Hypothefis.

And yet it is somewhat remarkable, amid the prevalence of such Notions, that there should still remain two Sciences in fashion,

Ch.IV. fashion, and these having their Certainty of all the least controverted, which are not in the minutest article depending upon Experiment. By these I mean ARITHMETIC, and GEOMETRY (a). But to come to our Subject concerning GENERAL IDEAS.

Man's

⁽a) The many noble Theorems (so useful in life, and so admirable in themselves) with which these two Sciences fo eminently abound, arise originally from PRINCIPLES, THE MOST OBVIOUS IMAGINABLE: Principles, so little wanting the pomp and apparatus of EXPERIMENT, that they are felf-evident to every one, possessed of common sense. I would not be understood. in what I have here faid, or may have faid elsewhere, to undervalue Experiment; whose importance and utility I freely acknowledge, in the many curious Nostrums and choice Receipts, with which it has enriched the necessary Arts of life. Nay, I go farther-I hold all justifiable Practice in every kind of Subject to be founded in Experience, which is no more than the refult of many repeated EXPERIMENTS. But I must add withal, that the man who acts from Experience alone, tho' he act ever so well, is but an Empiric or Quack, and that not only in Medicine, but in every other Subject. It is then only that we recognize ART, and that the EMPIRIC quits his name for the more honourable one of ARTIST, when to his EXPERIENCE he adds SCIENCE,

MAN'S FIRST PERCEPTIONS are those Ch.IV. of the SENSES, in as much as they commence from his earliest Infancy. These Perceptions, if not infinite, are at least indefinite, and more fleeting and transient, than the very Objects, which they exhibit, because

Science, and is thence enabled to tell us, not only, WHAT is to be done, but WHY it is to be done; for ART is a composite of Experience and Science, Experience providing it Materials, and Science giving them, A FORM.

In the mean time, while EXPERIMENT is thus necessary to all PRACTICAL WISDOM, with respect to PURE and SPECULATIVE SCIENCE, as we have hinted already, it has not the least to do. For who ever heard of Logic, or Geometry, or Arithmetic being proved experimentally? It is indeed by the application of these that Experiments are rendered useful; that they are assumed into Philosophy, and in some degree made a part of it, being otherwise nothing better than puerile amusements. But that these Sciences themselves should depend upon the Subjects, on which they work, is, as if the Marble were to fashion the Chizzle, and not the Chizzle the Marble.

Ch.IV. because they not only depend upon the existence of those Objects, but because they cannot subsist, without their immediate Presence. Hence therefore it is, that there can be no Sensation of either Past or Future, and consequently had the Soul no other Faculties, than the Senses, it never could acquire the least Idea of TIME (b).

But happily for us we are not deserted here. We have in the first place a Faculty, called IMAGINATION or FANCY, which however as to its energies it may be subfequent to Sense, yet is truly prior to it both in dignity and use. This it is which retains the fleeting Forms of things, when Things themselves are gone, and all Sensation at an end.

THAT this Faculty, however connected with Sense, is still perfectly different, may be

⁽b) See before, p. 105. See also, p. 112. Note (f).

be seen from hence. We have an Imagi-Ch.IV. nation of things, that are gone and extinct; but no such things can be made objects of Sensation. We have an easy command over the Objects of our Imagination, and can call them forth in almost what manner we please; but our Sensations are necessary, when their Objects are present, nor can we controul them, but by removing either the Objects, or ourselves (c).

A۶

When we view some reliest of sensation reposed within us, without thinking of its rise, or referring it to any sensible Object, this is PHANSY OR IMAGINATION.

When we view some such relict, and refer it withal to that sensible Object, which in time past was its cause and original, this is MEMORY.

A 2 2

Laftly

⁽c) Besides the distinguishing of Sensation from IMAGINATION, there are two other Faculties of the Soul, which from their nearer alliance ought carefully to be distinguished from it, and these are MNHMH, and ANAMNHEIE, MEMORY, and RECOLLECTION.

Ch.IV. As the Wax would not be adequate to its business of Signature, had it not a Power to retain, as well as to receive; the same holds of the Soul, with respect to Sense and Imagination. Sense is its receptive

Lastly the Road, which leads to Memory through a series of Ideas, however connected, whether rationally or casually, this is RECOLLECTION. I have added casually, as well as rationally, because a casual connection is often sufficient. Thus from seeing a Garment, I think of its Owner; thence of his Habitation; thence of Woods; thence of Timber; thence of Ships, Sea-sights, Admirals, &c.

If the Distinction between Memory and Phansy be not sufficiently understood, it may be illustrated by being compared to the view of a Portrait. When we contemplate a Portrait, without thinking of whom it is the Portrait, such Contemplation is analogous to Phansy. When we view it with reference to the Original, whom it represents, such Contemplation is analogous to Memory.

We may go farther. IMAGINATION or PHANSY may exhibit (after a manner) even things that are to come. It is here that Hope and Fear paint all their pleafant, and all their painful Pictures of Futurity. But MEMORY is confined in the strictest manner to the past.

ceptive Power; IMAGINATION, its re-Ch.IV. tentive. Had it Sense without Imagination, it would not be as Wax, but as Water, where tho' all Impressions may be instantly made, yet as soon as made they are as instantly lost.

Thus then, from a view of the two Powers taken together, we may call Sense (if we please) a kind of transient Imagination; and IMAGINATION on the contrary a kind of permanent Sense (d).

Now

What we have said, may suffice for our present purpose. He that would learn more, may consult Aristot. the Animâ, L. III. c. 3, 4. and his Treatise de Mem. et Reminisc.

⁽d) Τί τοίνυν ες ιν ή φανίασία ωδε αν γνωρίσαιμεν δεῖ νοεῖν εν ήμῖν ἀπὸ τῶν ἐνεργειῶν τῶν ϖερὶ τὰ ἀισθητὰ, διον τύπον (lege τύπον) τινὰ κὰ ἀναζωγράφημα ἐν τῷ ϖρώτῳ ἀισθητηρίῳ, ἐγκατάλειμμά τι τῆς ὑπὸ τῶ ἀισθηίδ γινομένης κινήσεως, ὁ κὰ μηκέτι τῶ ἀισθητῶ ϖαρόντος, ὑωομένει τὰ κὰ σώζεται, δν ὧσωερ ἐικών τις Α α 3

Ch.IV. Now as our Feet in vain venture to walk upon the River, till the Frost bind the Current, and harden the yielding Surface; so does the Soul in vain seek to exert its higher Powers, the Powers I mean of Reason and Intellect, till IMAGINATION first fix the fluency of Sense, and thus provide a proper Basis for the support of its higher Energies.

AFTER

αυτέ, δ κὶ τῆς μνήμης ἡμῖν σωζόμενον αίζου γίνεται τὸ τοιῦτον ἐγκατάλειμμα, κὰ τὸν τοιῦτον ὡστερ τύπον, ΦΑΝ ΓΑΣΙΑΝ καλεσιν. Now what Phansy or IMAGINATION is, we may explain as follows. We may conceive to be formed within us, from the operations of our Senses about sensible Subjects, some Impression (as it were) or Picture in our original Sensorium, being a relict of that motion caused within us by the external object; a relict, which when the external object is no longer present, remains and is still preserved, being as it were its Image, and which, by being thus preserved, becomes the cause of our having Memory. Now such a sort of relict and (as it were) Impression they call Phansy or IMAGINATION. Alexanthrod. de Animá, p. 135. b. Edit. Ald.

AFTER this manner, in the admirable Ch.IV. Occonomy of the Whole, are Natures fubordinate made fubservient to the higher. Were there no Things external, the Senses could not operate; were there no Sensations, the Imagination could not operate; and were there no Imagination, there could be neither Reasoning nor Intellection, fuch at least as they are found in Man, where they have their Intentions and Remissions in alternate succession, and are at first nothing better, than a mere CA-PACITY or Power. Whether every Intellect begins thus, may be perhaps a question; especially if there be any one of a nature more divine, to which "Inten-" fion and Remission and mere Capacity "are unknown (e)." But not to digress.

Ιτ

⁽e) See p. 162. The Life, Energy, or Manner of Man's Existence is not a little different from that of the DEITY. THE LIFE OF MAN has its Essence in A 2 4 MOTION.

Ch.IV. It is then on these permanent Phantasms that THE HUMAN MIND first works, and by

MOTION. This is not only true with respect to that lower and subordinate Life, which he shares in common with Vegetables, and which can no longer subsist than while the Fluids circulate, but it is likewise true in that Life, which is peculiar to him as Man. Objects from without first move our faculties, and thence we move of ourselves either to Practice or Contemplation. But the Life or Existence of God (as far as we can conjecture upon so transcendent a Subject) is not only complete throughout Eternity, but complete in every Instant, and is for that reason IMMUTABLE and SUPERIOR TO ALL MOTION.

It is to this diffinction that Ariffetle alludes, when he tells us—Ου γαρ μύνον κινήσεως ές ιν ενέργεια, αλλα κα ακινησίας και ηδουή μαλλον εν ήρεμία ες ιν, ή εν κινήσει μεταβολή δε ωάντων γλυκύ, κατα τον ωσιπτήν, δια ωσνηρίαν τινά ωσπερ γαρ ανθρωπος ευμετάβολος ωπλή, ουδ επιεικής. For there is not only an Energy of Motion, but of Immobility; and Pleasure or Felicity exists rather in Rest than in Motion; Change of all things being sweet (according to the Poet) from a principle of Pravity in those who believe so. Far

BOOK THE THIRD.

by an Energy as spontaneous and familiar Ch.IV. to its Nature, as the seeing of Colour is familiar to the Eye, it discerns at once what

in the same manner as the bad man is one fickle and changeable, so is that Nature bad that requireth Variety, in as much as such Nature is neither simple nor even. Eth. Nicom. VII. 14. & Ethic. Eudem. VI. sub. sin.

It is to this UNALTERABLE NATURE OF THE DEITY that Boethius refers, when he says in those elegant verses,

----Tempus ab Ævo Ire jubes STABILISOUR MANE

Ire jubes STABILISQUE MANENS das cuncla moveri.

From this fingle principle of IMMOBILITY, may be derived fome of the noblest of the Divine Attributes; such as that of IMPASSIVE, INCORRUPTIBLE, INCORPOREAL, &c. Vide Aristot. Physic. VIII. Metaphys. XIV. c. 6, 7, 9. 10. Edit. Du Val. See also Vol. I. of these Treatises, p. 262 to 266—also p. 295, where the Verses of Boethius are quoted at length.

It must be remembered however, that tho' we are not Gods, yet as rational Beings we have within us something Divine, and that the more we can become superior to our mutable, variable, and irrational part, and place our welfare in that Good, which is immutable,

Ch.IV. what in MANY is one; what in things DISSIMILAR and DIFFERENT IS SIMILAR and the SAME (f). By this it comes to behold

permanent, and rational, the higher we shall advance in real Happiness and Wisdom. This is (as an antient writer fays)— Ομοίωσις τῷ Θεῷ κατὰ τὸ δυνατὸν, the becoming like to God, as far as in our power. Τοῖς μὸ γὰρ Θεοῖς πᾶς ὁ βίω μακάριω τοῖς ὁ ἀνθρώποις, ἐφ' ὅσον ὁμοίωμά τι τῆς τοιἀύτης ἐνεργείας ὑπάρχει. For to the Gods (as says another antient) the whole of life is one continued happiness; but to Men, it is so far happy, as it rises to the resemblance of so divine an Energy. See Plat. in Theætet. Arist. Eth. X. 8.

(f) This CONNECTIVE ACT of the Soul, by which it views one IN MANY, is perhaps one of the principal Acts of its most excellent Part. It is this removes that impenetrable mist, which renders Objects of Intelligence invisible to lower faculties. Were it not for this, even the fensible World (with the help of all our Sensations) would appear as unconnected, as the words of an Index. It is certainly not the Figure alone, nor the Touch alone, nor the Odour alone, that makes the Rose, but it is made up of all these, and other attributes UNITED; not an unknown Constitution of infensible Parts, but a known Constitution of sensible Parts, unless we chuse to extirpate the possibility of natural Knowledge.

6

behold a kind of *Superior* Objects; a new Ch.IV. Race of Perceptions, more comprehensive than

WHAT then perceives this Constitution or Union?—Can it be any of the Senses?—No one of these, we know, can pass the limits of its own province. Were the Smell to perceive the union of the Odour and the Figure, it would not only be Smell, but it would be Sight also. It is the same in other instances. We must necessarily therefore recur to some HIGHER COLLECTIVE POWER, to give us a prospect of Nature, even in these her subordinate Wholes, much more in that comprehensive Whole, whose Sympathy is universal, and of which these smaller Wholes are all no more than Parts.

But no where is this collecting, and (if I may be allowed the expression) this unifying Power more conspicuous, than in the subjects of PURE TRUTH. By virtue of this power the Mind views One general Idea, in many Individuals; One Proposition in many general Ideas; One Syllogism in many Propositions; till at length, by properly repeating and connecting Syllogism with Syllogism, it ascend into those bright and steady regions of Science,

Quas neque concutiunt venti, neque nubila nimbis Adspergunt, &c. Lucr.

Even

Ch.IV. than those of Sense; a Race of Perceptions, each one of which may be found intire and

Even negative Truths and negative Conclusions cannot subsist, but by bringing Terms and Propositions together, so necessary is this UNITING Power to every Species of KNOWLEDGE. See p. 3. 250.

He that would better comprehend the distinction between sensitive Perception, and intellec-TIVE, may observe that, when a Truth is spoken, it is beard by our Ears, and understood by our Minds. That these two Acts are different, is plain, from the example of fuch, as bear the founds, without knowing the language. But to shew their difference still stronger, let us suppose them to concur in the same Man, who shall both hear and understand the Truth proposed. Let the Truth be for example, The Angles of a Triangle are equal to two right Angles. is one Truth, and not two or many Truths, I believe none will deny. Let me ask then, in what manner does this Truth become perceptible (if at all) to SENZ SATION?—The Answer is obvious; it is by successive Portions of little and little at a time. When the first Word is present, all the subsequent are absent; when the last Word is present, all the previous are absent; when any of the middle Words are present, then are there some absent, as well of one fort as the other. No more exists at once than a single Syllable, and the Remainder as much is not, (to Sensation at least) as tho'

and whole in the separate individuals of an Ch. IV.
infinite and sleeting Multitude, without departing

tho' it never had been, or never was to be. much for the perception of SENSE, than which we see nothing can be more distinated, fleeting, and detached. -And is that of the MIND fimilar?-Admit it, and what follows?-It follows, that one Mind would no more recognize one Truth, by recognizing its Terms successively and apart, than many distant Minds would recognize it, were it distributed among them, a different part to each. The case is, every TRUTH is ONE, tho' its TERMS are MANY. It is in no respect true by parts at a time, but it is true of necessity at once and in an instant.—What Powers therefore recognize this ONENESS or UNITY?—Where even does it refide, or what makes it?—Shall we answer with the Stagirite, To de EN HOIOTN TETO 6 NOTE Exagor—If this be allowed, it should seem, where Sensation and Intellection appear to concur, that Sensation was of Many, Intellection was of ONE; that Sensation was temporary, divisible and successive; Intellection, instantaneous, indivisible, and at once.

If we consider the Radii of a Circle, we shall find at the Circumference that they are MANY; at the Center that they are ONE. Let us then suppose SENSE and MIND to view the same Radii, only let Sense view them at the Circumference, Mind at the Center;

and

Ch.IV. parting from the unity and permanence of its own nature.

And

and hence we may conceive, how these Powers differ, even where they jointly appear to operate in perception of the same object.

There is ANOTHER ACT OF THE MIND, the very reverse of that here mentioned; an Act, by which it perceives not one in many, but MANY IN ONE. This is that mental Separation, of which we have given some account in the first Chapter of this Book; that Resolution or Analysis which enables us to investigate the Causes, and Principles, and Elements of things. It is by Virtue of this, that we are enabled to abstract any particular Attribute, and make it by itself the Subject of philosophical Contemplation. Were it not for this, it would be difficult for particular Sciences to exist; because otherwise they would be as much blended, as the feveral Attributes of fenfible Substances. How, for example, could there be such a Science as Optics, were we necessitated to contemplate Colour concreted with Figure, two Attributes, which the Eye can never view, but affociated? I mention not a multitude of other fenfible qualities, some of which still present themselves, whenever we look on any coloured Body.

Those

AND thus we see the Process by which Ch.IV. we arrive at GENERAL IDEAS; for the Per-

Those two noble Sciences, ARITHMETIC and GEOMETRY, would have no Basis to stand on, were it not for this feparative Power. They are both con-· versant about QUANTITY; Geometry about CONTI-NUOUS Quantity, Arithmetic about DISCRETE. Ex-TENSION is effential to continuous Quantity; Mo-NADS, or UNITS, to Discrete. By separating from the infinite Individuals, with which we are furrounded, those infinite Accidents, by which they are all diversified, we leave nothing but those SIMPLE and PER-FECTLY SIMILAR UNITS, which being combined make NUMBER, and are the Subject of ARITHME-TIC. Again, by separating from Body every possible fubordinate Accident, and leaving it nothing but its triple Extension of Length, Breadth, and Thickness, (of which were it to be deprived, it would be Body no longer) we arrive at that pure and unmixed MAGNITUDE. the contemplation of whose properties makes the Science of Geometry.

By the same analytical or separative Power, we investigate Definitions of all kinds, each one of which is a developed Word, as the same Word is an inveloped Definition.

To conclude—In Composition and Division consists the whole of Science, Composition

Ch.IV. Perceptions here mentioned are in fact no other. In these too we perceive the objects of Science and Real Knowledge, which can by no means be, but of that which is general, and definite, and fixt (g).

Here

TION MAKING AFFIRMATIVE TRUTH, AND SHEWING US THINGS UNDER THEIR SIMILARITIES AND IDENTITIES; DIVISION MAKING NEGATIVE TRUTH, AND PRESENTING THEM TO US UNDER THEIR DISSIMILARITIES AND DIVERSITIES.

And here, by the way, there occurs a Question.—
If all Wisdom be Science, and it be the business of Science as well to compound as to separate, may we not say that those Philosophers took Half of Wisdom for the Whole, who distinguished it from Wit, as if WISDOM only separated, and WIT only brought together?—Yet so held the Philosopher of Malmsbury, and the Author of the Essay on the Human Understanding.

(g) The very Etymologies of the Words EΠΙ-ΣΤΗΜΗ, SCIENTIA, and UNDERSTANDING, may ferve in some degree to shew the nature of these Faculties, as well as of those Beings, their true and proper Objects. ΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΗ ωνόμαςαι, δια το ΕΠΙ ΣΤΑΣΙΝ κὸ όρου των ωραγμάτων ἄγειν ἡμᾶς, Here too even *Individuals*, however of Ch.IV. themselves unknowable, become objects of Knowledge,

της ἀοριςίας κ) μεταβολης τῶν ἐπὶ μέρες ἀπάγεσα η γὰρ ἐπιςήμη ωερὶ τὰ καθόλε κ) ἀμετάπ]ωτα καταγίνεται. Science (ΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΗ) has its name from bringing us (ΕΠΙ ΣΤΑΣΙΝ) το some Stop and Boundary of things, taking us away from the unbounded nature and mutability of Particulars; for it is conversant about Subjects, that are general, and invariable. Niceph. Blem. Epit. Logic. p. 21.

This Etymology given by Blemmides, and long before him adopted by the Peripatetics, came originally from Plate, as may be feen in the following account of it from his Cratylus. In this Dialogue Socrates, having first (according to the Heraclitean Philosophy, which Cratylus favoured) etymologized a multitude of Words with a view to that Flow and uncleasing Mutation, supposed by Heraclitus to run thro' all things, at length changes his System, and begins to etymologize from another, which supposed something in nature to be permanent and fixed. On this principle he thus proceeds -Σχοπώμεν δή, έξ αυτών αναλαβόντες ωρώτον μέν τέτο τὸ ὄνομα την ΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΗΝ, ως αμφιδόλον έςι, κ) μάλλον έοικε σημαϊνόν τι ότι ΙΣΤΗΣΙΝ έμων ΕΠΙ τοις ωράγμασι την ψυχήν, η ότι συμπερι-Let us confider then (fays he) some of the very Words

Ch.IV. Knowledge, as far as their nature will permit. For then only may any Particular

Words already examined; and in the first place, the Word SCIENCE; how disputable is this (as to its former Etymology) how much more naturally does it appear to signify, that IT STOPS THE SOUL AT THINGS, than that it is carried about with them. Plat. Cratyl. p. 437. Edit. Serr.

The disputable Etymology, to which he here alludes, was a strange one of his own making in the former part of the Dialogue, adapted to the flowing System of Heraclitus there mentioned. According to this notion, he had derived EPIETHMH from interbas and pives, as if it kept along with things, by perpetually following them in their motions. See Plate as before, p. 412.

As to Scientia, we are indebted to Scaliger for the following ingenious Etymology. Ratiocinatio, motus quidam eft: Scientia, quies: unde et nomen, tum apud Græcos, tum etiam nostrum. Παρὰ τὸ ΕΠΙ ΙΣ-ΤΑΣΘΑΙ, ΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΗ. Sistitur enim mentis agitatio, et sit species in animo. Sic Latinum Scientia, ὅτι γίνεται ΣΧΕΣΙΣ ΤΟΥ ΟΝΤΟΣ. Nam Latini, quod nomen entis simplex ab usu abjecerunt atque repudiarunt, omnibus activis participiis idem adjunxerunt. Audiens, ἀκέων εν. Sciens, χῶν ῶν. Scal. in Theophr. de Causis Flant. Lib. I. p. 17.

The

be said to be known, when by afferting it Ch. IV. to be a Man, or an Animal, or the like,

we

The English Word, UNDERSTANDING, means not so properly Knowledge, as that Faculty of the Soul, where Knowledge resides. Why may we not then imagine, that the framers of this Word intended to represent it as a kind of firm Basis, on which the fair Structure of Sciences was to rest, and which was supposed to STAND UNDER them, as their immoveable Support?

Whatever may be faid of these Etymologies, whether they are true or false, they at least prove their Authors to have considered Science and Under-STANDING, not as fleeting powers of Perception, like Sense, but rather as steady, permanent, and durable Comprehensions. But if so, we must somewhere or other find for them certain steady, permanent, and durable Objects; fince if Perception of Any KIND BE DIFFERENT FROM THE THING PER-CEIVED, (whether it perceive straight as crooked, or crooked as straight; the moving as fixed, or the fixed as moving) such Perception Must of Necessi-TY BE ERRONEOUS AND FALSE. The following paffage from a Greek Platonic (whom we shall quote again hereafter) feems on the prefent occasion not without its weight-Εί έςὶ γνῶσις ἀπριβες έρα τῆς ἀισθήσεως, ειη αν κρ γνως α αληθες έρα των αισθητών. If there be B b 2 A Know-

HERMES.

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Ch.IV. we refer it to some such comprehensive, or general Idea.

Now it is of these comprehensive and PERMANENT IDEAS, THE GENUINE PERCEPTIONS OF PURE MIND, that WORDS of all Languages, however different, are the Symbols. And hence it is, that as the PERCEPTIONS include, so do these their Symbols

A KNOWLEDGE more accurate than SENSATION; there must be certain objects of such knowledge more true than objects of Sense.

The following then are Questions worth considering,—What these Objects are?—Where they reside?—And how they are to be discovered?—Not by experimental Philosophy it is plain; for that meddles with nothing, but what is tangible, corporeal, and mutable—nor even by the more refined and rational speculation of Mathematics; for this, at its very commencement, takes such Objects for granted. We can only add, that if they reside in our own MINDS, (and who, that has never looked there, can affirm they do not?) then will the advice of the Satirist be no ways improper,

-NEC TE QUESIVERIS EXTRA.

Particulars only, but all indifferently, as they bappen to occur. Were therefore the Inhabitants of Salifbury to be transferred to York, tho' new particular objects would appear on every fide, they would still no more want a new Language to explain themselves, than they would want new Minds to comprehend what they beheld. All indeed, that they would want, would be the local proper Names; which Names, as we have said already*, are hardly a part of Language, but must equally be learnt both by learned and unlearned, as often as they change the place of their abode.

It is upon the same principles we may perceive the reason, why the dead Languages (as we call them) are now intelligible; and why the Language of modern - England is able to describe antient Rome;

Bb3 and

^{*} Sup. p. 345, 346,

Ch.IV. and that of antient Rome to describe modern England (b). But of these matters we have spoken before.

§ 2. And now having viewed the Process, by which we acquire general Ideas, let us begin anew from other Principles, and try to discover (if we can prove so, fortunate) whence it is that these Ideas originally come. If we can succeed here, we may discern perhaps, what kind of Beings they are, for this at present appears somewhat obscure.

LET

⁽b) As far as Human Nature, and the primary General both of Subflance and Accident are the fame in all places, and have been so thro' all ages: so far all Languages thare one common IDENTITY. As far as peculiar species of Subflance occur in different regions; and much more, as far as the positive Institutions of religious and civil Politics are every where different; so far each Language has its peculiar Diversity. To the Causes of Diversity here mentioned, may be added the distinguishing Character and Genius of every Nation, concerning which we shall speak hereafter.

LET us suppose any man to look for Ch.IV. the first time upon some Work of Art, as for example upon a Clock, and having sufficiently viewed it, at length to depart. Would he not retain, when absent, an Idea of what he had seen?—And what is it, to retain such Idea?—It is to have A FORM INTERNAL correspondent to THE EXTERNAL; only with this difference, that the Internal Form is devoid of the Matter; the External is united with it, being seen in the metal, the wood, and the like.

Now if we suppose this Spectator to view many such Machines, and not simply to view, but to consider every part of them, so as to comprehend how these parts all operate to one End, he might be then said to possess a kind of INTELLIGIBLE FORM, by which he would not only understand, and know the Clocks, which he had seen already, but every Work also of like Sort, which he might see bereafter.—

B b 4 Should

Ch.IV. Should it be asked "which of these Forms
"is prior, the External and Sensible, or
"the Internal and Intelligible;" the Answer is obvious, that the prior is the Sensible.

Thus then we see, there are intelligible Forms, which to the Sensible are subsequent.

But farther still—If these Machines be allowed the Work not of Chance, but of an Artist, they must be the Work of one, who knew what he was about. And what is it, to work, and know what one is about?

—It is to have an Idea of what one is doing; to possess a Form internal, corresponding to the external, to which external it serves for an Exemplar or Arechetype.

Here then we have an intelligible Form, which is prior to the sensible Form; which, being truly prior as well in dignity as in time, can no more be- Ch.IV.come subsequent, than Cause can to Effect.

Thus then, with respect to Works of ART, we may perceive, if we attend. A TRIPLE ORDER OF FORMS; one Order, intelligible and previous to these Works; a fecond Order, fenfible and concomitant; and a third again, intelligible and subsequent. After the first of these Orders the Maker may be faid to work; thro' the second. the Works themselves exist, and are what they are; and in the third they become recognized, as mere Objects of Contempla-To make these Forms by different Names more easy to be understood; the first may be called THE MAKER'S FORM; the second, that of THE SUBJECT; and the third, that of THE CONTEMPLATOR.

LET us pass from hence to Works of NATURE. Let us imagine ourselves viewing some diversified Prospect; "a "Plain, for example, spacious and fer
"tile:

Ch.IV. "tile; a river winding thro' it; by the " banks of that river, men walking and " cattle grazing; the view terminated "with distant hills, some craggy, and " fome covered with wood." is plain we have plenty of Forms NA-TURAL. And could any one quit so fair a Sight, and retain no traces of what he had beheld?-And what is it, to retain traces of what one has beheld?-It is to have certain Forms internal correspondent to the EXTERNAL, and resembling them in every thing, except the being merged in Matter. And thus, thro' the same retentive and collective Powers, the Mind becomes fraught with Forms natural, as before with Forms artificial. Should it be asked, "which of these natu-"ral Forms are prior, the External ones " viewed by the Senses, or the Internal ex-" ifting in the Mind?" the Answer is obvious, that the prior are the External.

Thus

Thus therefore in Nature, as well as Ch.IV. in Art, there are intelligible
Forms, which to the sensible are subsequent. Hence then we see the meaning of that noted School Axiom, Nil est in Intellectu quod non prius fuit in Sensu; an Axiom, which we must own to be so far allowable, as it respects the Ideas of a mere Contemplator.

But to proceed somewhat farther—Are natural Productions made by Chance, or by Design?—Let us admit by Design, not to lengthen our inquiry. They are certainly more exquisite than any Works of Art, and yet these we cannot bring ourselves to suppose made by Chance.—Admit it, and what follows?—We must of necessity admit a Mind also, because Design implies Mind, wherever it is to be found.—Allowing therefore this, what do we mean

Arist. de Part. Animal. L. I. c. 1.

Ch.IV. mean by the Term, MIND?—We mean fomething, which, when it acts, knows what it is going to do; fomething stored with Ideas of its intended Works, agreeably to which Ideas those Works are fashioned.

THAT such Exemplars, PATTERNS, FORMS, IDEAS (call them as you please) must of necessity be, requires no proving, but follows of course, if we admit the Cause of Nature to be a Mind, as above mentioned. For take away these, and what a Mind do we leave without them? Chance surely is as knowing, as Mind without Ideas; or rather Mind without Ideas is no less blind than Chance.

THE Nature of these IDEAs is not difficult to explain, if we once come to allow a possibility of their Existence. That they are exquisitely beautiful, various, and orderly, is evident from the exquisite Beauty, Variety, and Order, seen in natural Substances, stances, which are but their Copies or Pic- Ch.IV. tures. That they are mental is plain, as they are of the Essence of MIND, and consequently no Objects to any of the Senses, nor therefore circumscribed either by Time or Place.

HERE then, on this System, we have plenty of Forms intelligible, which are truly previous to all Forms sensible. Here toowe see that Nature is not desective in her triple Order, having (like Art) her Forms previous, her Concomitant, and her Subsequent (i).

THAT

⁽i) Simplicius, in his commentary upon the Predicaments, calls the first Order of these intelligible Forms, τὰ ωρὸ τῆς μεθέξεως, those previous to Participation, and at other times, ἡ ἐξηφημένη κοινότης, the transcendent Universality or Sameness; the second Order he calls τὰ ἐν μεθέξει, those which exist in Participation, that is, those merged in Matter; and at other times, he calls them ἡ κατατεταγμένη κοινότης, the subordinate Universality or Sameness; lastly, of the third Order he says, that

Ch.IV. THAT the Previous may be justly so called is plain, because they are essentially prior

that they have no independent existence of their own, but that—ทุนธาร ฉิตุธภังษาธุร ฉิบาล รุ่ง ชลาร ทุนธาร์อุลเร รังνοίαις, καθ' έαυτα ύπες ήσαμεν, we ourselves abstracting them in our own Imaginations, have given them by such abstraction an existence as of themselves. Simp. in Prædic: In another place he fays, in a language fomewhat mysterious, yet still conformable to the same doctrine-Μήποτε έν τριτίον ληπίεον το κοινον, το μέν έξηρημένον τῶν καθ' έκαςα, κ) ἄιτιον τῆς ἐν ἀυτοῖς κοινότητος, κατά την μίαν έαυτε φύσιν, ώσπερ κ) της διαφορότητος κατά την ωολυειδή ωρόληψιν-δεύτερον δ έςι τὸ χοινὸν, τὸ ἀπὸ χοινε ἀιτίε τοῖς διαφόροις ἔιδεσιν ἐνδιδόμενον, κὰ ἐνυπάρχον ἀυτοῖς—τρίτον δὲ, τὸ ἐν ταις ήμετέραις διανοίαις έξ αφαιρέσεως ύφιςάμενον, υς ερογενες ον-Perhaps therefore we must admit a TRIPLE ORDER OF WHAT IS UNIVERSAL AND THE SAME; that of the first Order, transcendent and superior to Particulars, which thro' its uniform nature is the cause of that Sameness existing in them, as thro' its multiform pre-conception it is the cause of their Diversity—that of the second Order, what is infused from the first universal Cause into the various Species of Beings, and which has its existence in those several Species—that of the third Order, what subsists by abstraction in our own Understandings, being of subsequent origin to the other two. Ibid. p. 21. To

prior to all things else. The WHOLE VISI- Ch. IV.
BLE WORLD exhibits nothing more, than

ſa

To Simplicius we shall add the two following Quotations from Ammonius and Nicephorus Blemmides, which we have ventured to transcribe, without regard to their uncommon length, as they so fully establish the Doctrine here advanced, and the works of these Authors are not easy to be procured.

Έννοείσθω τοίνυν δακθύλιός τις ἐκθύπωμα ἔχων, εἰ τύχοι, 'Αχιλλέως, κ κηρία ωολλά ωαρακείμενα' ό δε δακδύλι σφραγιζέτω τὰς κηρὰς ωάνδας υς ερον δέ τις είσεχθών κή θεασάμεν 🚱 τα κηρία, έπις ήσας ότε waνla έξ ενός είσιν εκθυπώμα (Φ), εχετω wap' αυτώ τὸ έλθύπωμα τη διανοία. Ἡ τοίνυν σφραγὶς ή ἐν τῷ δακτυλίω λέγεται ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ είναι, ή δε έν τοις κηρίοις, ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ. τη διανοία τε απομαξαμένε, ΕΠΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, κ υς ερογενής. Τέτο έν έννοείσθω κ έπι των γενών κ έιδων δ γαρ Δημικργός, σοιών σάντα, έχει σαρ έαυτῶ τὰ τάντων σαραδείγματα· οἶον, σοιῶν ἄνθρωπου, έχει τὸ είδος ωαρ' έαυτω τε ανθρώπε, ωρὸς δ αφορών, σάντας σοιεί. Ει δέ τις ένςαίη λέγων, ώς τὰ ἐισὶ τῷ Δημικργῷ τὰ ἔιδη, ἀκκέτω ταῦτα, ως ο Δημιεργός δημιεργεί, η είδως τα ύπ' αύτε δημι-**Βργέμενα, η εκ έιδως. 'Αλλ' έι μεν μη έιδως, εκ αν** δημικργήσει. Τίς γαρ, μέλλων ωοιήσειν τὶ, άγνοῖι δ μέλλει

Ch.IV. so many passing Pictures of these immutable

Archetypes. Nay thro' these it attains even

a Sem-

μέλλει σοιείν; ε γαρ, ώς ή φύσις, αλόγω δυνάμει જાગદા: (όθει κ) જાગદા ή φύσις, έκ έφιςάνεσα γιως:αως τῷ γιγνομένῳ) Ει δέ τι καθ έξιν λογικήν ωσιεί, διδε ωε ωάντως τὸ γιγνόμενον ὑπ' αὐτω. μη χειρον, η κατα άνθρωπον, ο Θεός ωοιει, οίδε το ύπ αὐτε γιγνόμενον ει δε διδεν δ ωοιει, αὐτόθι δήλον, ώς हैंद्राण हैं। τῷ Δημικργῷ τὰ દાંδη. Εςι δε τὸ દાંδος εν τῷ Δημικργῷ, ὡς ὁ ἐν τῷ δακ]υλίῳ τύπος κὰ λέγεται τετο τὸ ἔιδος ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ, κ χωριςον της ύλης. "Εςι δε τὸ ἔιδος τε ανθρώπε κ) έν τοῖς καθ" έχαςον ανθρώποις, ώς τα έν τοῖς χηροῖς ἐκθυπώματα 🕏 🤧 λέγεται τὰ τοιαυτα ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ Είναι, 🕦 αχώριςα της ύλης. Θεασάμενοι δὲ τὰς κατα μέρος ανθρώπες, ότι ωάντες τὸ άυτὸ είδος τε ανθρώπε έχεσιν, (ώς ἐπὶ τᾶ ΰςερον ἐλθύντος, κὰ θεασαμένα τὰ κηρία) ανεμαξάμεθα αυτό έν τη διανοία κ λέγεται τέτο ΕΠΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, ήγουν μετά τὰ ωολλά, Intelligatur annulus, qui alicujus, ut-» υς ερογενές. pote Achillis, imaginem insculptam habeat: multæ insuper ceræ sint, et ab annulo imprimantur: veniat deinde quispiam, videatque ceras omnes unius annuli impressione formatas, annulique impressionem in mente contineat : sigillum annulo insculptum, ANTE MULTA dicetur: in cerulis impressum, in MULTIS: quod vero in illius, qui illo venerat intelligentia remanscrit, POST MULTA, et posterius à Semblance of Immortality, and con-Ch.IV.

rius genitum dicetur. Idem in generibus et formis intelligendum censeo: etenim ille optimus procreator mundi Deus, omnium rerum formas, àtque exempla habet apud se : ut si hominem efficere velit, in hominis formam, quam habet, intueatur, et ad illius exemplum cæteros faciat omnes. si quis restiterit, dicatque rerum formas apud Creatorem non esse: quæso ut dlligenter attendat: Opisex, quæ sacit, vel cognoscit, vel ignorat : sed is, qui nesciet, nunquam quirquam faciet : quis enim id facere aggreditur, quod facere ignorat? Neque enim facultate quâdam rationis experte aliquid aget, prout agit natura (ex quo conficitur, ut natura etiam agat, etsi quæ faciat, non advertat:) Si vero ratione quadam aliquid facit, quodcunque ab eo factum est omnino cognovit. Si igitur Deus non pejore ratione, quam homo, facit quid, que fecit cognovit : si cognovit quæ fecit, in iffo rerum formas effe perspicuum eft. Formæ autem in opifice sunt perinde ac in annulo sigillum, hæcque forma ANTE MULTA, et avulfa a materia dici-Atqui hominis species in unoquoque homine est, quemadmodum etiam figilla in ceris, et IN MULTIS, nec avulfa à materia dicitur. At cum singulos homines animo conspirimus, et eandem in unoquoque formam atque effigiem videmus, illa effigies in mente nostrå insidens POST MULTA, et posterius genita dicetur: veluti in illo quoque dicebamus, qui multa sigilla in cerà uno et eodem annulo impressa conspexerat. Ammon. in Prophyr. Introduct. p. 29. b.

C

Airoilai

Ch.IV. tinues throughout ages to be SPECIFIA

Λέγον αι δε τα γένη κ τα είδη ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ, ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, ΕΠΙΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ οίου εννοείσθω τι σφραγιτήριου, έχου κ εκίνπωμα το τυχον, έξ ε κηρία σολλά μεταλαβίτω τε έκουπώματο, καί τις υπ' όψιν αγαγέτω ταυτα, μη προκατιδών μηδ όλως τὸ, σφραγις ήριον έωραχώς δε τα εν οίς το εκίύπωμα, κ επιςήσας ότο चर्ळांबि रहें बेण्यहें μετέχεσιο έκουπώματ@, ప्रे τα δοκέντα σολλα τῷ λόγω συναθροίσας εἰς ἐν, ἔχἔτω τῶτο κα-Τὸ μὲν ἔν σφραγις ήριον σύπωμα λέγεται ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ τό δ' εν τοις υπρίοις, ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ. τὸ δὲ ἐξ ἀυτῶν καταληφθέν, κατα διάνοιαν αύλως υπος αν, ΕΠΙ ΤΟΙΣ Оптыс में। भी та уент भी та हाँने πολλοιΣ. ΠΡΟ ΤΩΝ ΠΟΛΛΩΝ μέν είσιν έν τῷ Δημικργώ, κατά τές ωριητικές λόγες έν τῷ Θεῷ γάρ οἰ ἐσιοποιοί λόγοι τών όντων ένιαίως ωρουφες ήχασι, καθ દેંદુ પ્રેઠંγુલદ્ર કે ઇનાફ્ટ્રેકા 🕒 જાલે દેગીલ જાલેગીલ એ જાદુ દેશાંદર એ σαρήγαγεν ύφες ηκέναι δε λέγονίαι τα γένη κο τα είδη ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, διότι iv τοις κατά μέρω ανθρώποις το τε ανθρώπε είδος έςι, κ) τοις प्रधान के मार्टि दिया में मार्टि के नहीं विकास हों कि के के के के कि के का का कि κὶ ίπποις, κὶ τοῖς ἄλλοις ζώοις τὸ γίο ευρίσκεται · των τοιέτων είδων, όπερ έςὶ τὸ ζώου· κάν τοῖς ζώοις όμε κ) τοίς ζωοφύτοις το καθολικώτερον γένον, το είσθητικον, έξετάζεται συναχθέντ**ου δι 3 τον φ**υτών, PEH-

Book THE THIRD.

CALLY ONE, amid those infinite parti- Ch.IV.

θεωρείται τὸ ἔμψυχον εί δε σύν τοῖς ἐμψύχοις ἐθέλει τις έπισχοπείν κ) τα άψυχα, τὸ σώμα σύμπαν κατόψεται συνδραμασών δε τοῖς έιρημένοις τῶν ἀσωμά-שווע של בושטי, דל שפשרטי שנים שי המינודמו של שניוצטרמוסי κή έτω μέν ΕΝ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ υφές ηκε τα είδη κή τα γένη. Καταλαθών δέ τις έχ των χατα μέρ ο ανθρώπων την αυτών φύσιν, την ανθρωπότητα, έχ δε τών κατα μέρο जिस्तक αυτήν την ίππότητα, κή έτω του καθόλα ανθρωπου, κ) του καθόλα ίππου έπινοήσας κ τὸ καθόλε ζώον ἐκ τῶν καθέκαςα τῷ λόγφ συναγαγώ» κ, το καθόλε αίσθητικου, κ) το καθόλε ξμψυχου, κ) τὸ καθόλυ σώμα, κὸ την καθολικωτάτην υσίαν έξ επάντων συλλογισάμεν 🕒, ο τοι έτ 🕒 έν τη έαυτε διανοία τα γένη κή τα είδη αύλως υπέςησεν ΕΠΙ ΤΟΙΣ ΠΟΛΛΟΙΣ, τετίςι, μετα τα πολλα κ usepoyevus. Genera verò et Species dicuntur esse An-TR MULTA, IN MULTIS, POST MULTA. Ut puta, intelligatur figillum, quamlibet figuram habens, ex quo multæ ceræ ejusdem siguræ sint participes, et in medium aliquis bas proferat, nequaquam prævifo figillo. Cum autem vidisset eas ceras in quibus figura exprimitur, et animadvertisset omnes eandem siguram participare, et que videbantur multe, ratione in unum coegisset, boc in mente teneat. Nempe figillum dicitur esse species ANTE MULTA; illa vero in ceris, IN MULTIS; que vero ab iis desumitur, et in mente immaterialiter subsissit, Post multa. Sie igitur et Genera et Species ant B MULTA in Creatore funt, secundum rationes efficientes. Cc2

Ch.IV. cular changes, that befal it every moment (k).

MAY

In Deo enim rerum effectrices rationes una et simpliciter præ-existunt; secundum quas rationes ille supra-substantialis omnes res et prædestinavit et produxit. Existere autem dicuntur Genera et Species in MULTIS, quoniam in fingulis hominibus hominis Species, et in singulis equis equi Species est. In hominibus æque ac in equis et aliis animalibus Genus invenitur harum specierum, quod est ani-In animalibus etiam una cum Zoophytis magis univerfale Genus, nempe senstivum exquiritur. Additis vere plantis, spectatur Genus animatum. Si verò una cum animatis quisquam velit perscrutari etiam inanimata, totum Corpus perspiciet. Cum autem entia incorporea conjuncta fuerint iis modo tractatis, apparebit primum et generalissimum Genus. Atque ita quidem IN MULTIS subsistant Genera et Species. Comprehendens vero quisquam ex singulis hominibus naturam ipsam humanam, et ex singulis equis ipsam equinam, atque ita universalem hominem et universalem equum considerans, et universale animal ex singulis ratione colligens, et universale sensitivum, et universale animatum, et universale corpus, et maxime universale ens ex omnibus colligens, hic, inquam, in sua mente Genera et Species immaterialiter constituit ENI TOIS NOA-ΛΟΙΣ, hoc est, POST MULTA, et posterius genita. ceph. Blem. Log. Epit. p. 62. Vid. etiam Alcin. in Platonic. Philosoph. Introduct. C. IX. X.

(k) The following elegant Lines of Virgil are worth attending to, tho' applied to no higher a subject than Bees.

Erge

MAY we be allowed then to credit those Ch.IV. speculative Men, who tell us, "it is in "these

Ergo ipsas quamvis angusti terminus ævi Excipiat: (neque enim plus septima ducitur ætas) AT GENUS IMMORTALE MANET ---- G. IV.

The same Immortality, that is, the Immortality of the Kind, may be seen in all perishable substances, whether animal or inanimate; for the Individuals perish, the several Kinds still remain. And hence, if we take TIME, as denoting the system of things temporary, we may collect the meaning of that passage in the Timæus, where the Philosopher describes TIME to be——μένοντω ἀιῶνω ἐν ἐνὶ κατ' ἀριθμὸν ἰᾶσαν ἀιώνιον ἐικόνα. Eternitatis in uno permanentis Imaginem quandam, certis numerorum articulis progredientem, Plat. V. III, p. 37. Edit. Serran.

We have subjoined the following extract from Boethius, to serve as a commentary on this description of TIME.—ÆTERNITAS igitur est, interminabilis vitæ tota simul et perfecta possession. Quod ex collatione temporalium clarius liquet. Nam quidquid vivit in TEMPORE, id præsens à præteritis in sutura procedit: nibilque est in tempore ita constitutum, quod totum vitæ suæ spatium pariter possit amplecti; sed crastinum quidem nondum apprehendit, hesternum vero jam perdidit. In hodierna quoque vita non amplius vivitis, quam in illo mobili transitorioque

Ch.IV. "these permanent and comprehensive FORMS
"that THE DEITY views at once, without
"looking abroad, all possible productions
"both present, past, and suture—that this
"great and stupendous View is but a View
"of himself, where all things lie inveloped
"in their Principles and Exemplars, as be-

momento. Quod igitur Temporis patitur conditionem, lices illud, sicut de mundo censuit Aristoteles, nec caperit unquam esfe, nec definat, vitaque ejus cum temporis infinitate tendatur, nondum tamen tale est, ut esternum esse jure credatur. Non enim totum simul infinitæ licet vitæ spatium comprebendit, atque complectitur, sed futura nondum transacta Quod igitur interminabilis vitæ plenitujam non babet. dinem totam pariter comprehendit, ac possidet, cui neque futuri quidquam absit, nec præteriti sluxeret, id ETER-NUM esse jure perhibetur: idque necesse est, et sui compos præsens sibi semper assistere, et infinitatem mabilis temporis habere præsentem. Unde quidam non recte, qui cum audiwit visum Platoni, mundum hunc nec habuisse initium, nec babiturum esse defectum, hoc mede conditori conditum mundum fieri co-æternum putant. Aliud est enim PER INTERMINABILEM DUCI VITAM, (quod Mundo Plato tribuit) aliud INTERMINABILIS VITA TOTAM PARITER COMPLEXAM ESSE PRESENTIAM, quod Divinæ Mentis proprium esse manifestum est. Neque enim Deus

"ing effential to the fulness of his universal Ch.IV.
"Intellection?"—If so, it will be proper that we invert the Axiom before mentioned. We must now say—Nil est in Sensu, quod non prius fuit in Intellectu. For the contrary may be true with respect to Knowledge merely human, yet never can it be true with respect to Know-

Deus conditis rebus antiquior videri debet temporis quantitate, sed simplicis potius proprietate naturæ. ENIM VITA IMMOBILIS PRÆSENTARIUM TUM, INFINITUS ILLE TEMPORALIUM MOTUS IMITATUR; cumque eum effingere, atque æquare non possit, ex immobilitate desicit in motum; ex simplicitate præsentiæ decrescit in insinitam suturi ac præteriti quanti? tatem; et, cum totam pariter vitæ suæ plenitudinem nequeat possidere, boc ipso, quod aliquo modo nunquam esse definit, illud, quod implere atque exprimere non potest, aliquatenus videtur emulari, alligans se ad qualemcunque præsentiam bujus exigui volucrisque momenti : quæ, quomam Manentis Illius Prasentia Quandam GESTAT IMAGINEM, quibuscunque contigerit, id præflat, ut BBSB videantur. Quoniam vero manere non potuit, infinitum Temporis iter arripuit: eoque modo factum eft, ut CONTINUARET VITAM EUNDO, cujus plenitudinem complecti non valuit PERMANENDO. Itaque, &c. De Confolat. Philosoph. L. V.

Ch.IV. Knowlege universally, unless we give Precedence to Atoms and Lifeless Body, making Mind, among other things, to be struck out by a lucky Concourse.

§ 3. It is far from the design of this Treatise, to infinuate that Atheism is the Hypothesis of our latter Metaphysicians, But yet it is somewhat remarkable, in their several Systems, how readily they admit of the above *Precedence*.

For mark the Order of things, according to their account of them. First comes that huge Body the sensible World. Then this and its Attributes beget sensible Ideas. Then out of sensible Ideas, by a kind of lopping and pruning, are made Ideas intelligible, whether specific or general. Thus should they admit that MIND was coeval with Body, yet till Body gave it Ideas, and awakened its dormant Powers, it could at best have been nothing more.

more, than a fort of dead Capacity; for Ch. IV.
INNATE IDEAS it could not possibly bave any.

AT another time we hear of Bodies so exceedingly sine, that their very Exility makes them susceptible of sensation and knowledge; as if they shrunk into Intellect by their exquisite subtlety, which rendered them too delicate to be Bodies any longer. It is to this notion we owe many curious inventions, such as subtle Æther, animal Spirits, nervous Ducts, Vibrations, and the like; Terms, which MODERN PHILOSOPHY, upon parting with occult Qualities, has found expedient to provide itself, to supply their place,

But the intellectual Scheme, which never forgets Deity, postpones every thing corporeal to the primary mental Cause. It is bere it looks for the origin of intelligible Ideas, even of those, which exist in buman Capacities. For the sense objects may

Ch.IV. be the destined medium, to awaken the dormant Energies of Man's Understanding, yet are those Energies themselves no more contained in Sense, than the Explosion of a Cannon, in the Spark which gave it fire (1).

In

(1) The following Note is taken from a Manuscript Commentary of the Platonic Olympiodorus, (quoted before, p. 371.) upon the Phado of Plato; who tho' perhaps some may object to from inclining to the Doctrine of Platonic Reminiscence, yet it certainly gives a better account how far the Senses affist in the acquisition of Science, than we can find given by vulgar Philosophers.

Oudémote yap ta Xeipu w devtepu apxal n airiat eight two keet louw e et de dei w tais eyxuxliois eknymetoi weibeobai w apxn eineiv thu diobnou this enishpuns, lekopeu authu apxn eix ws wointinnu, all we epebiguou thu huelepau huxn eis avapunou twu xabóteebiguou thu huelepau huxn eis avapunou twu xabóteebiguou thu huelepau huxn eis avapunou twu xabóteebiguou thu huelepau huxn eis avapunou xabóplacip, oti di ohews w axoñs to this pilosopias enoplacip, oti di ohews w axoñs to this pilosopias enoplacipe yéu, dioti ex twu aisontwu eis avapunou
apixuxpeba. Those things, which are inferior and secondary, are by no means the Principles or Causes of the
more excellent; and tho we admit the common interpretations, and allow Sense to be a Principle of Science,
we must however call it a Principle, not as if it was the
esticient

In short All Minds, that are, are Si- Ch.IV.

MILAR and Congenial; and so too are

their

efficient Cause, but as it rouses our Soul to the Recollection of general Ideas—According to the same way of thinking is it said in the Timeus, that through the Sight and Hearing we acquire to eurselves Philosophy, because we pass from Objects of Sensa to Raminiscance or Recollection.

And in another passage he observes—Exted yap wammapopon ayahma isin i huxi, wandon tun onlan tun onlan tun onlan tun onlan tun onlan tun onlan and tun and tun and tun and tun and tun and tun tun onlan tun tun on tun on

Georgius Gemistus, otherwise called Pletho, writes upon the same subject in the following manner. Την ψυχην φασίν οι τα ειδη τιθέμενοι αναλαμβάνεσαν έσγε έπις ήμην τες εν τοις αισθητοις λόγες, ακριβές ερον αυτες έχοντας κε τελεώτερον εν έαυτη έχειν, η εν τοις αισθηδις έχεσι. Το εν τελεώτερον τέτο κε ακριβές ερον εκ αν από των αισθητών έχειν την ψυχην, όγε μη ές εν εν αυτοις. Ου δ΄ αυ μηδαμέ αλλόθι δυ αυτην έξ αυτης διανοις.

Ch.IV, their Ideas, or intelligible Forms. Were it otherwise, there could be no intercourse between

νοεῖσθαι ε δε γάρ σεφυκέναι την ψυχην μηδαμή όν, τι διανοείσθαι τας γαρ ψευδείς των δοξων έχὶ μη όντων αλλ' δυτων μεν, άλλων δε κατ' άλλων είναι συνθέσεις τινάς, έ κατά τὸ όρθου γινομένας. Λέιπεσθαι δε αφ' έτέρας τινός φύσεως σολλώ έτι χρείτθονός τε κή τελεωτέρας αφήπειν τη ψυχή τὸ τελεώτερον τέτο τῶν ἐν τοῖς αισθητοις λόγων. Those who suppose IDEAL FORMS, fay that the Soul, when she assumes, for the purposes of Science, those Proportions, which exist in sensible objects, possesses them with a superior accuracy and perfection, than that to which they attain in those sensible objects. Now this superior Perfection or Accuracy the Soul cannot have from sensible objects, as it is in fact not in them; nor yet can she conceive it herself as from herself, without its having existence any where else. For the Soul is not formed fo as to conceive that, which has existence no where, fince even such opinions, as are false, are all of them compositions irregularly formed, not of mere Non-Beings, but of various real Beings, one with another. It remains therefore that this Perfection, which is superior to the Proportions existing in sensible objects, must descend to the Soul from some other Nature, which is by MANY DEGREES MORE EXCELLENT AND PERFECT. Pleth. de Aristotel. et Platonic. Philosoph. Diff. Edit. Paris 1541.

The AOFOI or PROPORTIONS, of which Gemiftus here speaks, mean not only those relative Proportions between Man and Man, or (what is more Ch.IV. important) between Man and God.

For

portions of Equality and Inequality, which exist in Quantity, (such as double, sesquialter, &c.) but in a larger sense, they may be extended to mathematical Lines, Angles, Figures, &c. of all which Abyos or Proportions; tho' we possess in the Mind the most clear and precise Ideas, yet it may be justly questioned, whether any one of them ever existed in the sensible World.

To these two Authors we may add Boethius, who, after having enumerated many acts of the MIND of INTELLECT, wholly distinct from Sensation, and independent of it, at length concludes,

Hac est efficiens magis
Longè caussa potentior,
Quam qua materia modo
Impressa patitur notas.
Pracedit tumen excitans,
Ac vires animi movens,
Vivo in corpore passio.
Cum vel lux osulos ferit,
Vel vox auribus instrepit;
Tum MENTIS VIGOR excitus,
QUAS INTUS SPECIES TENET,
Ad motus simileis vocans,
Notis applicat exteris,
INTRORSUMQUE RECONDITIS
FORMIS miscet imagines.

De Consolat. Philosoph. L. V.

For what is Conversation between Man and Man?—It is a mutual intercourse of Speaking and Hearing.—To the Speaker, it is to teach; to the Hearer, it is to learn. -To the Speaker, it is to descend from Ideas to Words; to the Hearer, it is to afcend from Words to Ideas.-If the Hearer, in this afcent, can arrive at no Ideas, then is he said not to understand; if he ascend to Ideas dissimilar and heterogeneous, then is he said to misunderstand. -What then is requifite, that he may be faid to understand?—That he should ascend to certain Ideas, treasured up within bimself, correspondent and similar to those within the Speaker. The same may be said of a Writer and a Reader: as when any one reads to-day or to-morrow, or here or in Italy, what Euclid wrote in Greece two thousand years ago.

Now is it not marvelous, there should be so exact an Identity of our Ideas, if they were

were only generated from *sensible* Objects, Ch.IV. infinite in number, ever changing, distant in Time, distant in Place, and no one Particular the same with any other?

AGAIN, do we allow it possible for God to fignify his will to Men; or for MEN to fignify their wants to God?—In both these cases there must be an Identity of Ideas, or else nothing is done either one way or the other. Whence then do these common IDENTIC IDEAS come?—Those of Men. it seems, come all from Sensation. whence come God's Ideas?—Not furely from Sensation too; for this we can hardly venture to affirm, without giving to Body that notable Precedence of being prior to the Intellection of even God bimself .- Let them then be original; let them be connate, and effential to the divine Mind .- If this be true, is it not a fortunate Event, that Ideas of corporeal rife, and others of mental, (things derived from subjects so totally distinet]

Ch.IV. tinet) should so bappily co-incide in the same wonderful Identity?

HAD we not better reason thus upon so abstruse a Subject?—Either all MINDS have their Ideas derived; or all have them original; or some have them original; and fome derived: If all Minds have them derived, they must be derived from something, which is itself not Mind, and thus we fall insensibly into a kind of Atheism. If all have them original, then are all Minds divine, an Hypothesis by far more plaufible than the former. But if this be not admitted, then must one Mind-(at leaft) have original Ideas, and the rest have them derived. Now supposing this last, whence are those Minds, whose Ideas are derived, most likely to derive them? From Mind, or from Body?—From Minp, a thing bomogeneous; or from Body, a thing beterogeneous? From MIND; such as (from the Hypothesis) has original cannot discover to have any Ideas at all? (1)—An Examination of this kind, pursued with accuracy and temper, is the most probable method of solving these doubts. It is thus we shall be enabled with more affurance to decide, whether we are to admit the Doctrine of the Epicurean Poet,

CORPOREA NATURA animum constare, animamque;

or trust the Mantuan Bard, when he sings in divine numbers,

Igneus est ollis vigor, et CÆLESTIS ORIGO Seminibus.

Bur

⁽¹⁾ NOTH of Lore Eama yeara was yar ar ta ANOHTA NOTH yearnooi; No Body produces Mind: for how should Things devoid of Mind produce Mind? Sallust de Diis et Mundo, c. 8.

Ch.IV. But it is now time, to quit these Speculations. Those, who would trace them farther, and have leisure for such studies, may perhaps find themselves led into regions of Contemplation, affording them prospects both interesting and pleafant. We have at present said as much as was requisite to our Subject, and shall therefore pass from hence to our concluding chapter.

CHAP. V.

Subordination of Intelligence — Difference of Ideas, both in particular Men, and in whole Nations—Different Genius of different Languages — Character of the English, the Oriental, the Latin, and the Greek Languages—Superlative Excellence of the Last—Conclusion.

most intimate connection with the fupreme Intelligence, may be said (as it were)

to

⁽a) Those Philosophers, whose Ideas of Being and Knowledge are rived from Body and Sensation, have a short method to explain the nature of TRUTH. It is a facilitious thing, made by every man for himself; which comes and goes, just as it is remembered and forgot; which in the order of things makes its appearance the last of any, being not only subsequent to sensations of them. According to this Hypothesis, there are many Truths, which have been, and are no longer; others, that will be, and have

Ch. V. to shine with unchangeable Iplendor, enlightening throughout the Universe every possible Subject, by nature susceptible of its benign influence. Passions and other obstacles may prevent indeed its efficacy, as clouds and vapours may obscure the Sun; but it self neither admits Diminution, nor Change, because the Darkness respects only particular Percipients. Among these therefore we must look for ignorance and

> not been yet; and multitudes, that possibly may never exist at all.

> But there are other Reasoners, who must surely have had very different notions; those I mean, who reprefent TRUTH not as the last, but the first of Beings; who call it immutable, eternal, omnipresent; Attributes, that all indicate fomething more than human. these it must appear somewhat strange, www men should imagine, that a crude account of the method bow they perceive Truth, was to pass for an account of Truth ititfulf; as if to describe the road to London, could be called a Description of that Metropolis.

> For my own part, when I read the detail about Senfation and Reflection, and am taught the process at large how my Ideas are all generated, I feem to view

and errour, and for that Subordination of Ch. V. Intelligence, which is their natural consequence.

WE have daily experience in the Works of ART, that a partial Knowledge will suffice for Contemplation, tho' we know not enough, to profess ourselves Artists. Much more is this true, with respect to NATURE; and well for mankind is it found

Dd 3

ta

the human Soul in the light of a Crucible, where Truths are produced by a kind of logical Chemistry. They may consist (for aught we know) of natural materials, but are as much creatures of our own, as a Bolus of Elixir.

If Milton by his URANIA intended to represent TRUTH, he certainly referred her to a much more antient, as well as a far more noble origin.

Heav'nly born!

Before the hills appear'd, or fountains flow'd,
Thou with eternal Wisdom didst converse,
Wisdom thy Sister; and with her didst play
In presence of th' almighty Father, pleas'd
With thy celestial Song.—— P. L. VII.

. See Proverbs VIII. 22, &c. Jeremiah X. 10, Mart. Antenin, IX, 1.

Ch. V. to be true, else never could we attain any natural Knowledge at all. For if the constitutive Proportions of a Clock are to subtle, that few conceive them truly, but the Artist himself; what shall we say to those feminal Proportions, which make the effence and character of every natural Subiest?—Partial views, the Imperfections of Sense; Inattention, Idleness, the turbulence of Paffions: Education, local Sentiments, Opinions, and Belief, conspire in many instances to furnish us with Ideas, some too general, some too partial, and (what is worse than all this) with many that are erroneous, and contrary to Truth. These it behoves us to correct as far as possible, by cool suspense and candid examination.

Νή Φ ε, 3 μέμνης ἀπιςείν, ἄρθρα ταῦτα τῶν Φρεγῶν.

And thus by a connection perhaps little expected, the Gause of Letters, and that that of VIRTUE appear to co-incide, it Ch. V. being the business of both to examine our Ideas, and to amend them by the Standard of Nature and of Truth (b).

In this important Work, we shall be led to observe, how Nations, like single Men, have their peculiar Ideas; how the peculiar Ideas become THE GENIUS OF THEIR LANGUAGE, since the Symbol must of course correspond to its Archetype (c);

Dd4 how

⁽b) How useful to ETHIC SCIENCE, and indeed to KNOWLEDGE in general, a GRAMMATICAL DISQUISITION into the Etymology and Meaning of WORDS was efteemed by the chief and ablest Philosophers, may be seen by consulting Plato in his Cratylus; Xenoph. Mem. IV. 5. 6. Arrian. Epict. I. 17. II. 10. Marc. Anton. III. 11. V. 8. X. 8.

⁽ε) ΗΘΟΥΣ ΧΑΡΑΚΤΗΡ έςι τ' ανθρώπα ΛΟΓΟΣ. Stob. Capiuntur Signa haud levia, sed observatu digna (quod fortasse quispiam non putarit) de ingeniis et moribus populorum et nationum ex linguis ipsorum. Bacon. de Augm. Scient. VI. 1. Vid. etiam Quinstil. L. XI. p. 675. Edit. Capperon. Diog. L. I. p. 58. et Meneg. Com. Tusc. Disp. V. 16.

Ch. V. how the wifest Nations, having the most and best Ideas, will consequently have the best and most copious Languages; how others, whose Languages are motley and compounded, and who have borrowed from different countries different Arts and Practices, discover by Words, to whom they are indebted for Things.

To illustrate what has been faid, by a few examples. WE BRITONS in our time have been remarkable borrowers, as our multiform Language may fufficiently shew. Our Terms in polite Literature prove, that this came from Greece; our Terms in Music and Painting, that these came from Italy; our Phrases in Cookery and War, that we learnt these from the French; and our Phrases in Navigation, that we were taught by the Flemings and Low Dutch. These many and very different Sources of our Language may be the cause, why it is so deficient in Regularity and Analogy. Yet we have this advantage to compensate the defect,

defect, that what we want in *Elegance*, Ch. V. we gain in *Copiousness*, in which last respect few Languages will be found superior to our own.

LET us pass from ourselves to the NA-TIONS OF THE EAST. The (d) Eastern World, from the earliest days, has been at all times the Seat of enormous Monarchy. Onits natives fair Liberty never shedits genial influence. If at any time civil Discords arose among them (and arise there did innumerable) the contest was never about the Form of their Government; (for this was an object, of which the Combatants had no conception;) it was all from the poormotive of, who should be their MASTER, whether

⁽d) Δια γαρ το δελικώτεροι είναι τα ήθη οι μεν Βάρδαροι των Έλλήνων, οι δε ωτρί την Ασίαν των ωφέ την Εφώπην, υπομένεσι την δεσποτικήν άρχην, εδέν δυχεραίνοντες. For the Barbarians by being more flavish in their Manners than the Greeks, and those of Asia than those of Europe, submit to despotic Government without murmuring or discontent. Arist. Polit. III. 4-

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Ch. V. whether a Cyrus or an Artunetues, a Mabomet or a Mustapha.

> Such was their Condition, and what was the consequence?—Their Ideas became confonant to their fervile State, and their Words became consonant to their fervile Ideas. The great Distinction, for ever in their fight, was that of Twant and Slave; the most unnatural one conceivable, and the most susceptible of pomp, and empty exaggeration. Hence they talked of Kings as Gods, and of themselves, as the meanest and most abject Reptiles. Nothing was either great or little in moderation, but every Sentiment was heightened by incredible Hyperbole. Thus the' they formetimes ascended into the Great and Magnificent (e), they as frequently degenerated

⁽e) The truest Sublime of the East may be found in the Scriptures, of which perhaps the principal cause is the intrinsic Greatness of the Subjects there treated; the Creation of the Universe, the Dispensations of divine Providence, &c.

nerated into the Tunid and Bombast. The Ch. V. Greeks too of Asia became infected by their neighbours, who were often at times not only their neighbours, but their masters; and hence that Luxuriance of the Asiatic Stile, unknown to the chaste eloquence and purity of Athens. But of the Greeks we forbear to speak now, as we shall speak of them more fully, when we have first considered the Nature or Genius of the Romans.

And what fort of People may we pronounce the Romans?—A Nation engaged
in wars and commotions, some foreign,
some domestic, which for seven hunAred years wholly engrossed their thoughts.
Hence therefore their Language became, like their Ideas, copious in all Terms
expressive of things political, and well
adapted to the purposes both of History
and popular Eloquence.—But what was
their Philosophy 2—Assa Nation, it was
none, if we may credit their ablest Writers.
And hence the Unstrees of their Language

Ch. V. to this Subject; a defect, which even Gicero is compelled to confess, and more fully
makes appear, when he writes Philosophy himself, from the number of terms,
which he is obliged to invent (f). Virgil
seems

(f) See Cic. de Finish. C. 1, 2, 3. III. C. 1, 2, 4, &cc. but in particular Tusc. Disp. I. 3. where he says, Philosophia jacuit usque ad hanc etatem, nec uslum habuit himen Literatum Latinarum; que illustranda et excitanda nobis est; ut si, &c. Bee also Tusc. Disp. IV. 3. and Acad. I. 2. where it appears, that 'till Cicero applied himself to the writing of Philosophy, the Remans had nothing of the kind in their language, except some mean performances of Amasanis the Epicurean, and others of the same seet. How far the Romans were indebted to Cicero for Philosophy, and with what industry, as well as eloquence, he cultivated the Subject, may be seen not only from the titles of those Works that are now lost, but much more from the many noble ones still fortunately preserved.

The Epicurean Poet LUCRETIUS, who flourished nearly at the same time, seems by his silence to have over-looked the Latin writers of his own sect; deriving all his Philosophy, as well as Cicero, from Grecian Sources; and, like him, acknowledging the difficulty of writing in Philosophy in Latin, both from the Poverty of the Tongue, and from the Novelty of the Subject.

Nec

feems to have judged the most truly of his Ch. V. Countrymen, when admitting their inferiority in the more elegant Arts, he concludes at last with his usual majesty,

Tu

Nec me animi fallit, GRAIORUM obscura reperta-Difficile inlustrare LATINIS versibus esse, (Multa nows rebus prasertim quom sit agendum,) Propter egestatem linguæ et rerum no-VITATEM:

Sed tua me virtus tamen, et sperata voluptas Suavis amicitiæ quemvis perferre laborem Suadet-Lucr. I. 137.

In the same age, VARRO, among his numerous works, wrote some in the way of Philosophy; as did the Patriot BRUTUS, a Treatife concerning Virtue, much applauded by Gcero; but these Works are now lost.

Soon after the writers above mentioned came Ho-RACE, some of whose Satires and Epistles may be justly ranked amongst the most valuable pieces of Latin Philefophy, whether we consider the purity of their Stile, or the great Address, with which they treat the Subject.

After Horace, tho' with as long an interval as from the days of Augustus to those of Nero, came the Satirist PERSIUS, the friend and disciple of the Stoic Cornutus: to whose precepts as he did honour by his virtuous Life,

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Ch. V.

Tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento,

(Hæ tibi erunt artes) pacisque imponere morem,

Parcere subjectis, et debellare superbos.

FROM

so his works, tho' small, shew an early proficiency in the Science of Morals. Of him it may be said, that he is almost the single difficult writer among the Latin Classics, whose meaning has sufficient merit, to make it worth while to labour thro' his obscurities.

In the same degenerate and tyrannic period, lived also Seneca; whose character, both as a Man and a Writer, is discussed with great accuracy by the noble Author of the Characteristics, to whom we refer.

Under a milder Dominion, that of Hadrian and the Antonines, lived Aulus Gellius, or (as some call him) Agellius, an entertaining Writer in the miscellaneous way; well skilled in Criticism and Antiquity; who the can hardly be entitled to the name of a Philosopher, yet deserves not to pass unmentioned here, from the curious fragments of Philosophy interspersed in his works.

With Aulus Gellius we range MACROBIUS, not because a Contemporary, (for he is supposed to have lived under

Ch. V.

FROM confidering the Romans, let us pass to the Greeks. The Grecian Common-

under Honorius and Theodosius) but from his near resemblance, in the character of a Writer. His Works, like the other's, are miscellaneous; filled with Mythology and antient Literature, some Philosophy being intermixed. His Commentary upon the Somnium Scipionis of Cicero may be considered as wholly of the philosophical kind.

In the fame age with Aulus Gellius, flourished APU-LEIUS of Madaura in Africa, a Platonic Writer, whose Matter in general far exceeds his perplexed and affected Stile, too conformable to the false Rhetoric of the Age when he lived.

Of the same Country, but of a later Age, and a harsher Stile, was MARTIANUS CAPELLA, if indeed he deserve not the name rather of a Philologist, than of a Philosopher.

After Capella, we may rank CHALCIDIUS the Platonic, tho' both his Age, and Country, and Religion are doubtful. His manner of writing is rather more agreeable than that of the two preceding, nor does he appear to be their inferior in the knowledge of Philosophy, his work being a laudable Commentary upon the Timaus of Plate.

Ch. V. Commonwealths, while they maintained their Liberty, were the most heroic Confederacy, that ever existed. They were

the

The last Latin Philosopher was BOETHIUS, who was descended from some of the noblest of the Roman Families, and was Conful in the beginning of the fixth Century. He wrote many philosophical Works, the greater part in the Logical way. But his Ethic piece, On the Confolation of Philosophy, and which is partly profe, and partly verse, deserves great encomiums both for the Matter, and for the Stile; in which last he approaches the Purity of a far better age than his own, and is in all respects preferable to those crabbed Africans already mentioned. By command of Theodoric king of the Goths, it was the hard fate of this worthy Man to suffer death; with whom the Latin Tongue, and the last remains of Roman Dignity, may be faid to have funk in the western World.

There were other Romans, who left Philosophical Writings; such as Musonius Rufus, and the two Emperors, Marcus Antoninus and Julian; but as these preferred the use of the Greek Tongue to their own, they can hardly be considered among the number of Latin Writers.

And so much (by way of sketch) for THE LATIN AUTHORS OF PHILOSOPHY; a small number for so vast an Empire, if we confider them as all the product of pear fix successive centuries.

the politest, the bravest, and the wisest of men. In the short space of little more than a Century, they became such Statesmen, Warriors, Orators, Historians, Physicians, Poets, Critics, Painters, Sculptors, Architects, and (last of all) Philosophers, that one can hardly help considering THAT GOLDEN PERIOD, as a Providential Event in honour of human Nature, to shew to what perfection the Species might ascend (g).

Now

⁽g) If we except Homer, Hefiod, and the Lyric Poets, we hear of few Grecian Writers before the expedition of Xerxes. After that Monarch had been defeated, and the dread of the Persian power was at an end, the Effulgence of Grecian Genius (if I may use the expression) broke forth, and shone till the time of Alexander the Macedonian, after whom it disappeared, and never rose again. This is that Golden Period spoken of above. I do not mean that Greece had not many writers of great merit subsequent to that period, and especially of the philosophic kind; but the Great, the Striking, the Sublime (call it as you please) attained at that time to a height, to which it never could ascend in any after age.

Ch. V. Now THE LANGUAGE OF THESE
GREEKS was truly like themselves, it was

The same kind of fortune befel the people of Rome. When the Punic wars were ended, and Carthage their dreaded Rival was no more, then (as Horace informs us) they began to cultivate the politer arts. It was soon after this, their great Orators, and Historians, and Poets arose, and Rome, like Greece, had her Golden Period, which lasted to the death of Octavius Carfar.

I call these two Periods, from the two greatest Geniuses that sourished in each, one THE SOCRATIC PERIOD, the other THE CICERONIAN.

There are still farther analogies subsisting between them. Neither Period commenced, as long as solicitude for the common welfare engaged men's attentions, and such wars impended, as threatened their destruction by Foreigners and Barbarians. But when once these sears were over, a general security soon ensued, and instead of attending to the arts of desence and self-preservation, they began to cultivate those of Elegance and Pleasure. Now, as these naturally produced a kind of wanton insolence (not unlike the vitious temper of high-sed animals) so by this the bands of union were insensibly dissolved. Hence then among the

conformable to their transcendent and Ch. V. universal Genius. Where Matter so abounded,

the Greeks that fatal Peloponnesian War, which together with other wars, its immediate consequence, broke the consederacy of their Commonwealths; wasted their strength; made them jealous of each other; and thus paved a way for the contemptible kingdom of Macedon to enslave them all, and ascend in a few years to universal Monarchy.

A like luxuriance of prosperity sowed discord among the Romans; raised those unhappy contests between the Senate and the Gracehi; between Sylla and Marius; between Pompey and Casar; till at length, after the last struggle for Liberty by those brave Patriots Brutus and Cassus at Philippi, and the subsequent deseat of Anthony at Assium, the Romans became subject to the dominion of a Fellow-Citizen.

It must indeed be confessed, that after Alexander and Octavius had established their Monarchies, there were many bright Geniuses, who were eminent under their Government. Aristotle maintained a friendship and epistolary correspondence with Alexander. In the time of the same Monarch lived Theophrastus, and the Cynic, Diogenes. Then also Demosthenes and Eschines spoke their two celebrated Qrations. So likewise in the time of Octavius, Virgil wrote his Eneid, and with E e 2

Ch. V. abounded, Words followed of course, and those exquisite in every kind, as the Ideas for which they stood. And hence it followed, there was not a Subject to be found, which could not with propriety be expressed in Greek.

HERE were Words and Numbers for the Humour of an Aristophanes; for the native

Horace, Varius, and many other fine Writers, partook of his protection and royal munificence. But then it must be remembered, that these men were bred and educated in the principles of a free Government. hence they derived that high and manly spirit, which made them the admiration of after-ages. The Succeffors and Forms of Government left by Alexander and Octavius, soon stopt the growth of any thing farther in So true is that noble faying of Longinus— Θρέψαι τε γαρ ίκανη τα φρονήματα τῶν μεγαλοφρόνων ή ΕΛΕΥΘΕΡΙΑ, κ) έπελπίσαι, κ) άμα διωθείν τὸ της του της του καλλήλως έριδος, κή χης τερί τα ωρωτεια φιλοτιμίας. It is LIBERTY that is formed to nurse the sentiments of great Geniuses; to inspire them with hope; to push forward the propensity of contest one with another, and the generous emulation of being the first in rank. De Subl. Sect. 44.

native Elegance of a Philemon or Menan-Ch. V. der; for the amorous Strains of a Mimnermus or Sappho; for the rural Lays of a Theocritus or Bion; and for the sublime Conceptions of a Sophocles or Homer. The same in Prose. Here Isocrates was enabled to display his Art, in all the accuracy of Periods, and the nice counterpoise of Diction. Here Demosthenes found materials for that nervous Composition, that manly force of unaffected Eloquence, which rushed, like a torrent, too impetuous to be withstood.

WHO were more different in exhibiting their Philosophy, than Xenophon, Plato, and his disciple, Aristotle? Different, I say, in their character of Composition; for as to their Philosophy itself, it was in reality the same. Aristotle, strict, methodic, and orderly; subtle in Thought; sparing in Ornament; with little address to the Passions or Imagination; but exhibiting the whole with

Ch. V. such a pregnant brevity, that in every fentence we feem to read page, a How exquisitely is this all performed in Greek? Let those, who imagine it may be done as well in another Language, fatisfy themselves either by attempting to translate him, or by perusing his translations already made by men of learning. On the contrary, when we read either . Xenophon or Plato, nothing of this method and strict order appears. The Formal and Didactic is wholly dropt, Whatever they may teach, it is without profeffing to be teachers; a train of Dialogue and truly polite Address, in which, as in a Mirrour, we behold human Life, adorned in all its colours of Sentiment and Manners.

And yet though these differ in this manner from the Stagirite, how different are they likewise in character from each other?——Plato, copious, figurative,

tive, and majestic; intermixing at times Ch. V. the facetious and satiric; enriching his Works with Tales and Fables, and the mystic Theology of antient times. Xenophon, the Pattern of perfect simplicity; every where smooth, harmonious, and pure; declining the sigurative, the marvellous, and the mystic; ascending but rarely into the Sublime; nor then so much trusting to the colours of Stile, as to the intrinsic dignity of the Sentiment itself,

THE Language in the mean time, in which He and Plata wrote, appears to suit so accurately with the Stile of both, that when we read either of the two, we cannot help thinking, that it is he alone, who has hit its character, and that it could not have appeared so elegant in any other manner,

And thus is the Greek Tongue, from its Propriety and Universality, made

E e 4 for

Ch. V. for all that is great, and all that is beautiful, in every Subject, and under every Form of writing.

GRAIIS ingenium, GRAIIS dedit ore rotundo

Musa loqui.

It were to be wished, that those amongst us, who either write or read, with a view to employ their liberal leisure (for as to such, as do either from views more sordid, we leave them, like Slaves, to their destined drudgery) it were to be wished, I say, that the liberal (if they have a relish for letters) would inspect the finished Models of Grecian Literature; that they would not waste those hours, which they cannot recall, upon the meaner productions of the French and English Press; upon that sungous growth of Novels and of Pamphlets, where, it is to be feared, they rarely find any

any rational pleasure, and more rarely Ch. V. still, any selid improvement.

To be competently skilled in antient learning, is by no means a work of fuch insuperable pains. The very progress itfelf is attended with delight, and resembles a Journey through some pleasant Country, where every mile we advance, new charms arise. It is certainly as easy to be a Scholar, as a Gamester, or many other Characters equally illiberal and low. The same application, the same quantity of habit will fit us for one, as completely as for the other. And as to those who tell us, with an air of feeming wisdom, that it is Men, and not Books, we must fludy to become knowing; this I have always remarked, from repeated Experience, to be the common confolation and language of Dunces. They shelter their ignorance under a few bright Examples, whose transcendent abilities, without the common

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Ch. V. common helps, have been sufficient of themselves to great and important Ends.

But alas!

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Decipit exemplar vitiis imitabile-

In truth, each man's Understanding, when ripened and mature, is a composite of natural Capacity, and of fuper-induced Habit. Hence the greatest Men will be necessarily those, who possess the best Capacities, cultivated with the best Habits. Hence also moderate Capacities, when adorned with valuable Science, will far transcend others the most acute by nature, when either neglected, or applied to low and base purposes. And thus for the honour of Culture and Good LEARNING, they are able to render a man, if he will take the pains, intrinfcally more excellent than his natural Superiors.

AND

BOOK THE THIRD.

4²7 Ch. V.

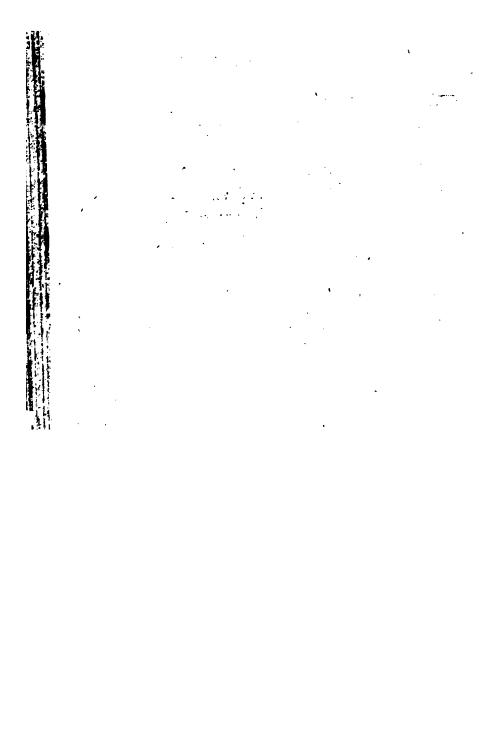
AND so much at present as to GE-NERAL IDEAS; bow we acquire them; whence they are derived; what is their Nature; and what their connection with Language. So much likewise as to the Subject of this Treatise, Universal Gram-MAR.

End of the THIRD BOOK.



ADVERTISEMENT.

THE following Notes are either Translations of former Notes, or Additions to them. The additional are chiefly Extracts from Greek Manuscripts, which (as the Author has said already concerning others of the same kind) are valuable both for their Rarity, and for their intrinsic Merit.



ADDITIONAL NOTES.

PAG. 95.—To Stop, &c.] The Quotation from Proclus in the Note may be thus rendered—That thing is at rest, which for a time prior and subsequent is in the same place, both itself, and its Parts.

P. 105. In the Note, for yiyvóµevov read yevóµevov, and render the passage thus—For by this faculty (namely the faculty of Sense) we neather know the Future, nor the Pass, but the Present only.

P. 106. NOTE (d). The passage of Philoponus here referred to, but by mistake omitted, has respect to the notion of beings corporeal and sensible, which were said to be nearly approaching to Non-Entitys. The Author explains this among other reasons, by the following-Πως δε τοις μη έσι γειτνιάζει; Πρώτον μεν, έπειδη ένταυθα το σαρελθόν έςι κ) το μέλλον, ταυτα की क्षेत्र वैभाषः पर्व क्षेत्र प्रवेष मुक्क मंक्रवंगाहवा स्रे धेर हैंगा हेड़ो, पर्व वैहे - ἐπώ ἐςι. συμπαραθέει δὲ τῷ χρόνῳ τὰ φύσικα ϖάνθα, μαλλον δε της χινήσεως αυτών σαρακολέθημα έςι δ x phoos. How therefore is it that they approach nearly to Non-Entitys? In the first place, because HERE (where they exist) exists THE PAST and THE FUTURE, and these are Non-Entitys; for the one is vanished, and is no more, the other is not as yet. Now all natural Substances pass away along with TIME, or rather it is upon their Motion that TIME is an Attendant.

P. II9—in the Note here subjoined mention is made of the REAL Now, or INSTANT, and its efficacy. To which we may add, that there is not only a necessary Connection between Existence and the Present Instant, because no other Point of Time can properly be said to be, but also between Existence and Life, because whatever lives, by the same reason necessarily Is. Hence Sopheceles, speaking of Time present, elegantly says of it—

—χρόνω τῶ ζών]ι, κὰ ωαρόν]ι νῦν.
ΤΗΕ LIVING, and Now present TIME.

Trachin. V. 1185.

P. 227.—The Passage in Virgil, of which Servius here speaks, is a description of Turnus's killing two brothers, Amycus and Diores; after which the Poet says of him,

——curru abscissa Duokum Suspendit capita———

This, literally translated, is—he bung up on his chariot the heads of Two persons, which were cut off, whereas the Sense requires, of THE Two persons, that is to say, of Amycus and Diores. Now this by Amborum would have been exprest properly, as Amborum means THE Two; by Duorum is exprest improperly, as it means only Two indefinitely.

P. 259.—The Passage in Note (o) from Themislius, may be thus rendered—Nature in many instances appears to make her transition by little and little, so that in some Beings it may be doubted, whether they are Animal, or Vegetable.

P. 294.

P. 294. Note (c)—There are in the number of things many, which have a most known Existence, but a most unknown Essence; such for example as Motion, Place, and more than either of them, Time. The EXISTENCE of each of these is known and indisputable, but what their * Essence is, or Nature, is among the most difficult things to discern. The Soul also is in the same Class: that it is fomething, is most evident; but what it is, is a matter not so easy to learn. Alex. Aphrod. p. 142.

P. 340.—LANGUAGE—INCAPABLE OF COMMU-NICATING DEMONSTRATION.] See Three Treatises, or Vol. I. p. 220, and the additional note on the words, The Source of infinite Truths, &c.

P. 368.—in the Note—yet so held the Philosopher of Malmesbury, and the Author of the Essay, &c.]

Philoponus, from the Philosophy of Plato and Pythagoras, seems to have far excelled these Moderns in his account of Wisdom or Philosophy, and its Attributes, or essential Characters. - Idiov yap φιλοσοφίας τὸ ἐν τοῖς ωολλοῖς ἔχεσι διαφοράν δείξαι τὴν κοινωνίαν, κ) τὸ ἐν τοῖς Ετολλοῖς ἔχεσι κοινωνίαν δεῖξαι τίνι διαφέρυσιν ε γαρ δυσχερες το δείξαι φάτνης (lege φάτης) κό ωτριςτράς κοινωνίαν (ωαντί γαρ ωρεπίον), άλλ' έ (lege όπε) τὸ διάφορον τέτων ἐιπεῖν ἐδὲ κυνὸς κὸ ἴππε διαφοράν, άλλα τί κοινὸν έχεσιν. Ιτ is the PRO-PER BUSINESS OF PHILOSOPHY TO SHEW IN THINGS, WHICH HAVE DIFFERENCE, MANY WHAT IS THEIR COMMON CHARACTER; and IN MANY THINGS, WHICH HAVE A COMMON CHA-RACTER, THRO' WHAT IT IS THEY DIFFER. is

is indeed no difficult matter to show the common Character of a Wood-Pigeon and a Dove (for this is evident to every one), but rather to tell where lies the Difference; nor to tell the Difference between a Dog and a Horse, but rather to show, what they possess in common. Philop. Com. MS. in Nicomach. Arithm.

P. 379—THEY ARE MORE EXQUISITE THAN, &c.] The Words of Arifotle, here referred to, are these—μαλλον δ' έςι τὸ ễ ἔνεκα κ' τὸ καλὸν ἐν τοῖς τῆς φύσεως ἔργοις, ἢ ἐν τοῖς τῆς τεχνής. The PRINCIPLES OF DESIGN and BEAUTY are more in the Works of NATURE, than they are in those of ART.

P. 379.—WE MUST OF NECESSITY ADMIT A MIND, &c.] The following quotation, taken from the third Book of a manuscript Comment of Proclus on the Parmenides of Plato, is here given for the sake of those, who have curiosity with regard to the doctrine of IDEAS, as held by antient Philosophers.

Ει δὲ δεῖ συντόμως ἐιπεῖν τὴν ἀιτὶαν τῆς τῶν ἰδεῶν ὑποθέσεως, δι ἢν ἐκείνοις ῆρεσε, ρητέον ὅτι τᾶυτα πάνθα ὅσα ὁρατὰ, ἐράνια κὰ ὑπὸ σελήνην, ἢ ἀπὸ ταυθομάτε ἐςὶν, ἢ κατ' ἀιτίαν' ἀλλ' ἀπὸ ταυθομάτε ἀδύνατον' ἔςι γὰρ ἐν τοῖς ὑς έροις τὰ κρέιτθονα, νᾶς, κὰ λόγος, κὰ ἀιτία, κὰ τὰ ἀιτίας, κὰ ὅτω τὰ ἀποτελέσματα κρείτθω τῶν ἀρχῶν, πρὸς τῷ κὰ ὅ φησιν ὁ ᾿Αριςοτέλης' δεῖ πρὸ τῶν κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς ἀιτίων εἶναι τὰ καθ' ἀυτὰ, τέτων γὰρ ἔκβασις τὸ κατὰ συμβεβηκός' ῶςε τᾶ ἀπὸ ταυθομάτε πρεσβύτερον ᾶν ἦν τὸ κατ' ἀιτίαν, ἐι κὰ ἀπὸ ταυθομάτε τὰ Θειότατα ἤν τῶν φανερῶν. If therέ-

therefore we are to relate concilely the Caule, why THE HYPOTHESIS OF IDEAS pleased them (namely Parmenides, Zeno, Socrates, &c.) we must begin by observing that all the various visible objects around us, the heavenly as well as the Sublunary, are either from CHANCE, or according to a Cause. From Chance is im-POSSIBLE; for then the more excellent things (such as Mind, and Reason, and Cause, and the Effects of Cause) will be among those things that come last, and so the END-INGS of things will be more excellent than their BEGIN-NINGS. To which too may be added what Aristotle says; that essential Causes ought to be prior to ACCIDENTAL, in as much as EVERY ACCIDENTAL CAUSE IS A DEVIATION FROM THEM; fo that whatever is the Effect of such effential Cause [as is indeed every work of Art and human Ingenuity] must needs be prior to that which is the Effect of Chance, even the we were to refer to Chance the most divine of visible objects [the Heavens themselves].

The Philosopher, having thus proved a definite Cause of the World in opposition to Chance, proceeds to shew that from the Unity and concurrent Order of things this Cause must be One. After which he goes on, as follows.——

— 'Ει μεν εν άλογον τετο, άτοπον. εςαι γάρ τι πάλιν των υξέρων της τέτων αιτίας κρειτίον, το κατα λόγον κ γνωσιν ποιεν, εισω τε Παντός ον, κ τε Όλε μέρος, δ έςιν απ' αιτίας αλόγε τοιετο. 'Ει δε λόγον εχον, κ αυτό γινώσκον, οίδεν έαυτό δήπε των πάντων αιτιον ον, η τετο αγνοεν, αγνοήσει την έαυτε φύσιν. 'Ει δε διδεν, ότι κατ' εσίαν ές τε πανίος αιτιον, τὸ F f 2 dè ωρισμένως èldòς Θάτερον, κỳ Θάτερον διδεν ἐξ ἀνάλκης, διδεν ἄρα κỳ ἔ ἔςιν ἄιτιον ωρισμένως διδεν ἔν κỳ
τὸ Παν, κỳ πάνλα ἐξ ῶν τὸ Παν, ῶν ἐςι κỳ ἄιτιον.
Καὶ ἐι τῦτο, ἤτοι ἐις ἐαυτὸ ἄρα βλέπον, κỳ ἐαυτὸ γινῶσκον, διδε τὰ μετ ἀυτό. Λόγοις ἄρα κỳ ἔιδεσιν ἀῦλοις διδε τὰς Κοσμικὰς Λόγας, κỳ τὰ ἔιδη, ἔξ ῶν τὸ
Παν, κỳ ἔςιν ἐν ἀυτῷ τὸ Παν, ὡς ἐν ἀιτίῳ, χωρὶς τῆς
ῦλης.—Νοιυ IF THIS CAUSE BE VOID OF REASON, that indeed would be abfurd; for then again there
roould be something among those things, which came last
in order, more excellent than their Principle or Cause. I
mean by more excellent, something operating according to
Reason and Knowledge, and yet within that Universe, and
a Part of that Whole, which is, what it is, from a Cause
devoid of Reason.

But if, on the contrary, THE CAUSE OF THE UNI-VERSE BE A CAUSE, HAVING REASON and knowing itself, it of course knows itself to be the Cause of all things; else, being ignorant of this, it would be ignorant of its own nature. But if it know, that from ITS VERY Essence it is the Cause of the Universe, and if that, which knows one part of a Relation definitely, knows also of necessity the other, it knows for this reason definitely the thing of which it is the Cause. KNOWS THEREFORE THE UNIVERSE, and all things out of which the Universe is composed, of all which also it is the Cause. But if this be true, it is evident that BY LOOKING INTO ITSELF, AND BY KNOWING ITSELF, IT KNOWS WHAT COMES AFTER IT-BELF, AND IS SUBSEQUENT. It is, therefore, through certain Reasons and Forms Devoid of Matter

that it knows those mundane Reasons and Forms, out of which the Universe is composed, and that the Universe is in it, as in a Cause distinct from and without the Matter.

P. 380—AGREEABLE TO WHICH IDEAS THESE Works are fashioned, &c.] It is upon these Principles that Nicomachus in his Arithmetic, p. 7. calls the Supreme Being an Artist-iv TH TE TEXVITE Ose Siavoia, in Dei artificis mente. Where Philoponus, in his manuscript Comment, observes as follows - τεχνίτην φησὶ τὸν Θεὸν, ώς ωάνθων τὰς ωρώτας αιτίας κὶ τὰς λόγες ἀυτῶν ἔχονία. He calls GoD an ARTIST, as possessing within himself the first Causes of all things, and their Reasons or Proportions. Soon after speaking of those Sketches, after which Painters work and finish their Pictures, he subjoins - women an ήμεις, είς τὰ τοιαυτα σκιαγραφήματα βλέπονιες, ωοιέμεν τό δέ τι, έτω κ) ό δημιεργός, πρός έκεινα άπο-Ελέπων, τὰ τῆδε ωάνθα κεκόσμηκεν άλλ' ἰς έον, ὅτι τὰ μεν τηθε σκιαγραφήματα άτελη έισιν, έκεινοι δε όι έν τῶ Θεῶ λόγοι ἀρχέτυποι κὸ wavléλειοί εισιν. As therefore we, looking upon such Sketches as these, make such and such particular things, so also the Creator, looking at those Sketches of his, hath formed and adorned with beauty all things here below. We must remember, however, that the Sketches here are imperfect; but that the others, those REASONS or Proportions, which exist in God, are ARCHETYPAL and ALL-PERFECT.

It is according to this Philosophy, that Milton reprefents God, after he had created this visible World, contemplating

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In prospect from his throne, how good, how fair,
Answ'ring his great Idea—
P. Lost, VII. 556.

Proclus proves the Existence of these GENERAL IDEAS or Universal Forms by the following Arguments. -- is τοίνυν ές ν αιτία το σανδος αυτώ τω รีเทลเ ซางเซียล, ราง อิธิ ลับราพิ ราพิ รีเทลเ ซางเซีท ลัสาง ราทีร รัสบราษ **ω**οιεί εσίας τετό έςι ωρώτως, δπερ το ωοιέμενον δευτέρως κό ο έςι ωρώτως, δίδωσι τω ωοικμένω δευτέρως* οίον το συρ κ δίδωσι θερμότη α άλλω, κ ές, θερμόν, ή ψυχη δίδωσι ζωήν, κὶ έχει ζωήν, κὶ έπὶ ωάνθων ίδοις αν άληθη τον λόγον, δσα άυτω τω ξιναι woiti. κ To αีเทเอง ຮັ້ນ หรื ထာထပါဝဲς αυκώ τω દાναι ထာဝเຮิง หรือ हिन्द , πρώτως, όπερ ο κόσμος δευτέρως. ἐι δη ο κόσμος πλήρωμα είδων έςὶ σανθοίων, ἔιη αν κὰ ἐν τῶ αἰτίω τὰ κόσμε ταυτα ωρώτως το γαρ αυτο άιτιον κ ήλιον, κό σελήνην, κό ανθρωπον υπέςησε, κό ίππον, κό όλως τὰ ἔιδη, τὰ ἐν τῷ ϖαν]ί. ταῦτα ἄρα ϖρώτως ἐςὶν ἐν τη αιτία τε σανίος, άλλος ήλιος σαρα τον έμφανη, κ άλλος άνθεωπος, κ'ς των ἐιδων όμοίως εκαςον. ές ιν άρα τα ξίδη ωξὸ τών αισθητών, κ, άιτια αυτών τα δημιεργικά κατά τὸν ἐιρημένον λόγον, ἐν τῆ μιᾶ τε κόσμε wavlòs ἀιτία wροϋπάρχονία. If therefore THE CAUSE OF THE UNIVERSE be a Cause which operates merchy by existing, and if that which operates merely by existing operate from its own proper Essence, SUCH CAUSE IS PRIMARILY, WHAT ITS EFFECT IS SECONDARI-LY, and that, which it is primarily, it giveth to its Effeet secondarily. It is thus that Fire both giveth Warmth

to something else, and is itself warm; that the Soul giveth Life, and possesset Life: and this reasoning you may perceive to be true in all things whatever, which operate merely by existing. It follows therefore, THAT THE CAUSE OF THE UNIVERSE, operating after this manner, 19 THAT PRIMARILY, WHICH THE WORLD IS SE-If therefore the WORLD be the ple-CONDARILY. nitude of FORMS of all Sorts, these FORMS MUST ALSO BE PRIMARILY IN THE CAUSE OF THE WORLD; for it was the same Cause, which constituted the Sun, and the Moon, and Man, and Horse, and in general all the Forms existing in the Universe. These therefore exist primarily in the Cause of the Universe; another Sun besides the apparent, another Man, and so with respect to every Form elfe. The FORMS therefore, PREVIOUS to the sensible and external Forms, and which according to this reasoning are their ACTIVE and EFFICIENT CAUses, are to be found PRE-EXISTING IN THAT ONE AND COMMON CAUSE OF ALL THE UNIVERSE, Procli Com. MS. in Plat. Parmenid. L. 3.

We have quoted the above passages for the same reason as the former; for the sake of those, who may have a curiosity to see a sample of this antient Philosophy, which (as some have held) may be traced up from Plate and Socrates to Parmenides, Pythagoras, and Orpheus himself.

If the Phrase, to operate merely by existing, should appear questionable, it must be explained upon a supposition, that in the Supreme Being no Attributes are secondary, intermittent, or adventitious, but all original, ever perfect and essential. See p. 162, 359.

F f 4

That

That we should not therefore think of a blind unconficious operation, like that of Fire here alluded to, the Author had long before prepared us, by uniting Knowledge with natural Efficacy, where he forms the Character of these Divine and Creative Ideas.

But let us hear him in his own Language.—ahh ειωερ εθελοιμεν την ιδιότηλα αυτών (fc. Ιδεών) αφορίσασθαι δια των γνωριμωτέρων, από μέν των φυσικών λόγων λάβωμεν τὸ ἀυτῷ τῷ εἶναι σοιητικὸν, ὧν δη κ שסוצסו מאס שנ דשע דב עונגשע דס אישרוצטי, שני שסוצסוי, દા x) μη αυτῷ τῷ είναι woixσι, x) ταῦτα ένώσαν[ες φῷμεν αιτίας είναι τας Ιδίας δημικργικάς άμα κ νοιράς ωάντων των κατά φύσιν αποτελεμένων. But if we should chuse to define the peculiar character of IDEAS by things more known to us than themselves, let us assume from NATURAL PRINCIPLES THE POWER OF EF-FECTING, MERELY BY EXISTING, all the things that they effect; and from ARTIFICIAL PRINCIPLES THE POWER OF COMPREHENDING all that they effect, although they did not effect them merely by existing; and then uniting those two, let us say that IDEAS are at once the Efficient and intelligent Causes of all things produced according to Nature. From book the fecond of the same Comment.

The Schoolman, Thomas Aquinas, a subtle and acute writer, has the following sentence, perfectly corresponding with this Philosophy. Res omnes comparantur ad Divinum Intellectum, seut artificiata ad Artem.

The

The Verses of Orpheus on this subject may be found in the tract De Munde, ascribed to Aristotle, p. 23. Edit. Sylburg.

Zeus apont yévero, Zeus x. T. A.

P. 391—Where all things lie inveloped, &c.]

—δσα πέρ έςι ΤΑ ΠΟΛΛΑ κατὰ δή τινα μερισμον, τοσαῦτα κὸ ΤΟ ΕΝ ἐκεῖνο πρὸ τε μερισμε
κατὰ τὸ πάνη αμερές ε γὰρ εν, ὡς ἐλάχιςον, καθάπερ ὁ Σπεύσιππος ἔδοξε λέγειν, ἀλλ' ΕΝ, ΩΣ
ΠΑΝΤΑ. Ας numerous as is THE MULTITUDE
OF INDIVIDUALS by Partition, fo rumerous also is that
PRINCIPLE OF UNITY by universal Impartibility. For
it is not ONE, as a MINIMUM is one (according to what
Speucippus seemed to say), but it is ONE, as being ALL
THINGS. Damascius περὶ Αρχῶν, MS.

P. 408—THE WISEST NATIONS—THE MOST CO-PIOUS LANGUAGES.] It is well observed by Muretus —Nulli unquam, qui res ignorarent, nomina, quibus eas exprimerent, quasserunt. Var. Lect. VI. 1.

P. 411.—BUT WHAT WAS THEIR PHILOSO-PHY?] The same Muretus has the following passage upon the ROMAN TASTE FOR PHILOSOPHY.— Beati autem illi, et opulenti, et omnium gentium victores ROMANI, in petendis honoribus, et in prensandis civibus, et in exteris nationibus verbo componendis, re compilandis occupati, philosophandi curam servis aut libertis suis, et Graculis esurientibus, relinquebant. Ipsi, quod ab avari-

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tia, quod ab ambitione, quod a voluptatibus reliquum erat temporis, ejus si partem aliquam aut ad audiendum Græeum quempiam philosophum, aut ad aliquem de philosophia libellum vel legendum vel scribendum contulissent, jam se ad eruditionis culmen pervenisse, jam victam a se et prostigatam jacere Græciam somniabant. Var. Lect. VI. 1.

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